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WOMEN AT WORK IN CANADA

revised fact book on the female labour force

1958

Department of Labour of Canada

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WOMEN AT WORK IN CANADA

a fact book on the female labour force

REVISED 1958

Department of Labour of Canada

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Minister

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67018-2-1

1958-59



703303
27.5.59

THE QUEEN'S PRINTER AND CONTROLLER OF STATIONERY
OTTAWA, 1959

Price 25 cents

Cat. No. L38-659

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FOREWORD

This publication is a successor to the booklet *Women at Work in Canada* published by the Department of Labour in 1957.

It is more than a revised edition. The information in the earlier publication has been brought up to date, but the subject matter has also been reorganized and rewritten with extensive additions of interpretative text. By using new sources of information it was possible to throw further light on matters dealt with in the earlier version as well as to discuss subjects of growing importance to women workers which were not gone into before. New tables and charts have been added.

Published data brought together from various sources are acknowledged in the footnotes. Thanks are due to the Dominion Bureau of Statistics for suggesting certain changes in the original publication, most of which were adopted, and for providing valuable unpublished tabulations.

Mrs. Svanhuit Josie of the Economics and Research Branch, working under the general direction of Dr. G. Schonning, was responsible for the research. She also reorganized the material and wrote the publication with the exception of Chapter V which was contributed by the Legislation Branch.

This booklet is presented jointly by the Women's Bureau and the Economics and Research Branch with the hope that it will be a useful and ready source of reference for women workers themselves and for all who are interested in their conditions of work.

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DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR
Ottawa, Canada
September, 1958

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I

Women in the Working Force

During the last half-century women have become an important element in the Canadian labour force. The same trend is evident throughout the Western world, and particularly in the United States.

This is not to suggest that in earlier days women did not make their contribution to the economic welfare of the family. But woman's work was then mainly done in the home. Except for workers in family enterprises, persons are considered to be in the labour force only if they work for pay or profit, or are looking for paid jobs. The great majority of Canadian women are married, and for most of them home-making is a full-time occupation. Married women make up the bulk of the adult group not in the labour force.

The increase in the female labour force has been due to a considerable extent to growth of the Canadian population, but job opportunities for women have also expanded. (See Chart I p. 4.) The continual trek from rural areas to the cities and towns has been an important factor, since about 95 per cent of all Canadian women with jobs are in non-agricultural employment.

The increase in participation¹ of women was rapid in the first decade of the century. However, it was during the two World Wars that women made most progress in proving their value as workers. Acute manpower shortages in those years encouraged the hiring of women for many jobs once done exclusively by men. Today women are recognized as an important part of the working force.

The kinds of jobs that most women hold—clerical, service jobs and lighter manufacturing occupations—are less sensitive to economic conditions than are the heavy industries which mainly employ men. The result is that when a recession occurs, unemployment does not make itself felt as soon for women as in the case of men.

¹ "Labour force participation" refers to the percentage of the population aged 14 and over "in the labour force", i.e. at work or looking for work.

Economic and social changes of the past half-century have played a part in the growth in number of women workers. The increasing division of production processes and the resulting dilution of skills have meant the replacement of some craftsmen by operatives, many of whom are women. The growth of record-keeping and office jobs opened up a major field of employment for women.

In the early stages of women's participation in the labour force the great majority of women workers were single or the sole support of families. It was not until the Second World War that employment of married women outside the home became common. In recent years the shortening of working hours and prevalence of the five-day week have permitted women to hold jobs at the same time as they fulfil other responsibilities. Finally, development of mechanical aids such as washing machines, vacuum cleaners and other household appliances, and evolution of prepared frozen and pre-cooked foods have helped to reduce housework and freed many women for employment outside the home.

Today one out of four Canadian workers is a woman. Yet women do not make up as high a proportion of the working force in Canada as in the United States and in Great Britain. In both of those countries about one worker in three is a women. (See Table 1.)

Table 1
**Civilian Labour Force, Canada, U.S.A. and Great Britain,
by Sex, June 1957**
(Estimates in 1,000's)

	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Canada.....	4,554	76.0	1,442	24.0	5,996	100.0
U.S.A.....	47,375	67.8	22,467	32.2	69,842	100.0
Great Britain.....	15,253	66.2	7,773	33.8	23,026	100.0

NOTE: Figures for Canada and U.S.A. include persons 14 and over; for Great Britain, 15 and over. Great Britain includes England, Scotland and Wales but not Northern Ireland.

SOURCES:

Canada—*The Labour Force*, Dominion Bureau of Statistics (hereafter DBS), Special Surveys Division, June 1957, Table 2.

U.S.A.—*Current Population Reports, Labor Force*, U.S. Bureau of the Census, Series P-57, June 1957, Table 1.

Great Britain—"Employment in Great Britain in June," *Ministry of Labour Gazette*, August 1957, p. 291.

This comparison of the percentage of women in the labour force of each of the three countries should not be left without pointing out that the over-all rates are influenced by important socio-economic factors.

For instance, agricultural workers are, of course, included, and in the United States one in four agricultural workers is a woman as against only 7 per cent in Canada and 11 per cent in Great Britain. In the United States they account for about 9 per cent of the female labour force. If only non-agricultural workers are considered, it can be seen from Table 2 that the difference between Canada and the other two countries is reduced.

Table 2
**Persons with Jobs (Non-Agricultural), Canada, U.S.A.
 and Great Britain, by Sex**
 (Estimates in 1,000's)

	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Canada, June 1957.....	39,696	73.0	1,364	27.0	5,060	100.0
U.S.A., June 1957.....	39,647	67.2	19,323	32.8	58,970	100.0
Great Britain, June 1956.....	14,394	65.1	7,723	34.9	22,117	100.0

NOTE: Figures for Canada and U.S.A. include persons 14 and over; for Great Britain, 15 and over. Great Britain includes England, Scotland and Wales but not Northern Ireland.

SOURCES:

Canada—*The Labour Force, op. cit.*, June 1957, Table 6.

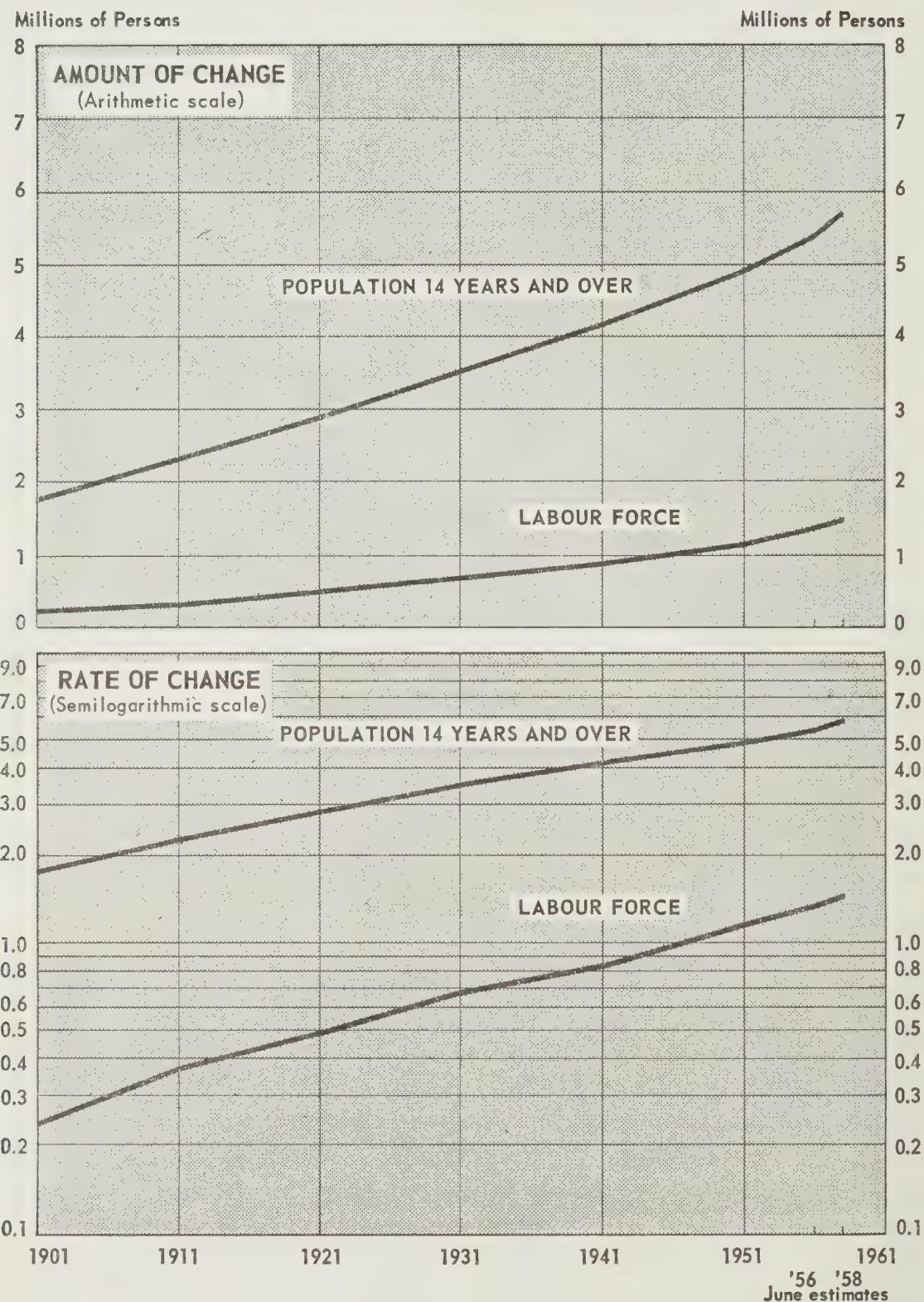
U.S.A.—*Current Population Reports, Labor Force, op. cit.*, Series P-57, July 1957, Table 7.

Great Britain—*Annual Abstract of Statistics*, H.M. Stationery Office, 1957, Table 130.

In England it has been the custom since early in the nineteenth century for a high proportion of women to engage in paid employment. Work in the textile mills and in the potteries is traditional there for married women in the industrial north. In the United States, where outside work for women did not become common until the second half of the nineteenth century, the proportionate increase in the last few decades has been greater, particularly among those in favourable economic circumstances.

In Canada too, the female labour force is growing steadily. (See Table 3.) There were six times as many women workers in 1958 as in 1901.

**GROWTH OF FEMALE LABOUR FORCE
AND OF FEMALE POPULATION
CANADA, 1901 to 1951 and 1956, 1958**



SOURCES: Table 3, p. 5. See footnotes to table; also, *Census of Canada*, 1956, Table 21; the *Labour Force*, *op. cit.*, June 1956, Table 2 and June 1958, Table 2.

Table 3

**Female Population and Labour Force 14 and Over,
Canada, 1901-1951 and 1958**

Year	Population		Labour Force		Percentage of Total Labour Force
	No. (1,000's)	No. (1,000's)	Participation Rate		
1901.....	1,761	238	13.5	13.3	
1911.....	2,274	365	16.0	13.4	
1921.....	2,843	489	17.2	15.5	
1931.....	3,481	665	19.1	17.0	
1941.....	4,133	834*	20.2	18.5	
1951.....	4,823	1,147	23.8	22.1	
June 1958 (est.).....	5,668	1,499	26.4	24.5	

NOTE: Census figures do not include Newfoundland, Yukon and Northwest Territories.

* Includes persons on active service.

SOURCE:

*Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. 4, Table 1., The Labour Force, op. cit., June 1958,
Table 2.*

However, expansion of employment has not been confined to women. As Table 4 shows, the rise in the employment index since 1949 has been even greater for men.

Table 4

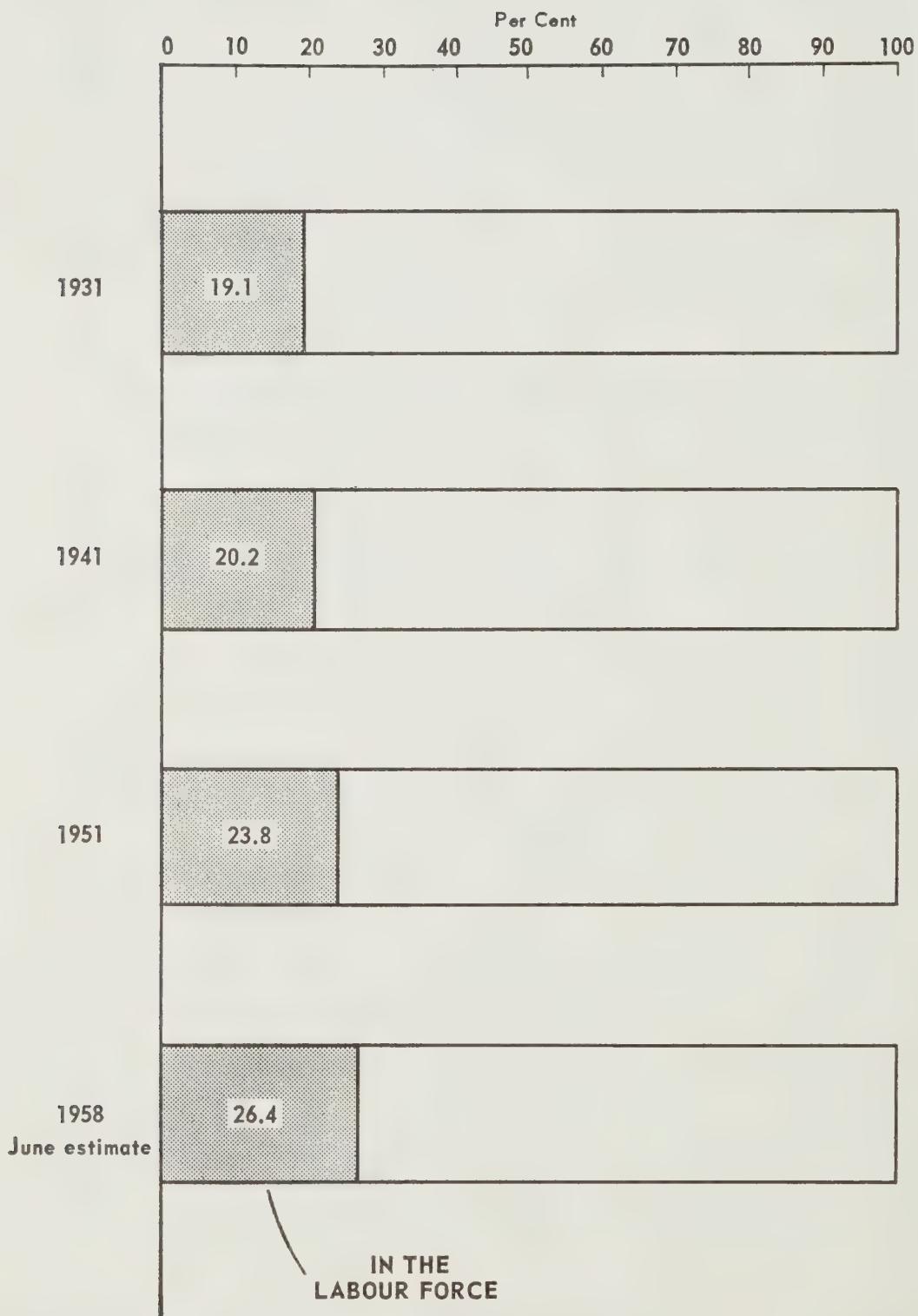
**Annual Average Index of Employment for Men and Women, Industrial
Composite, Canada, 1949-1956**
(1949=100.0)

Year	Index of Employment	
	Men	Women
1949.....	100.0	100.0
1950.....	101.8	100.6
1951.....	109.8	105.4
1952.....	113.2	106.4
1953.....	113.9	111.6
1954.....	109.8	109.9
1955.....	112.5	112.4
1956.....	120.5	119.0

SOURCE:

*Review of Employment and Payrolls, 1956, DBS, Labour and Prices Division,
Table 11.*

PERCENTAGE OF CANADIAN WOMEN IN THE LABOUR FORCE
1931 to 1951 and 1958



SOURCES: Table 3, p. 5. See footnotes to table.

The proportion of women working varies in different parts of the country depending on economic conditions and opportunities in the kinds of work that women do. The highest proportion of women are in the labour force in the more industrialized provinces, especially Ontario and Quebec. On the other hand, in Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island and Saskatchewan the lowest proportion are in the labour force. (See Table 12.)

Of course there are seasonal variations in participation rates of women workers as well as of men. They are generally highest in the summer months except for married women who are less likely than others to work during July and August.

The percentage of women in the population who are working is always much lower than the percentage of men. There are many reasons for this, but among the main demographic factors that influence the working life of women are age, marriage and the presence of children, particularly the latter two. These are discussed in Chapter II.

The proportion of Canadian women in the civilian labour force has now risen to 26 per cent. This is considerably below the proportion of American women working (36.5 per cent). The extent of participation by British women is approximately midway between the other two countries. (See Table 5.)

Table 5

Percentage of Women in Labour Force, Canada, U.S.A. and Great Britain

<i>Canada</i>	<i>U.S.A.</i>	<i>Great Britain</i>
26.0	14 and over, June 1957 36.5	15 and over, June 1956 30.7

NOTE: Great Britain includes England, Scotland and Wales, but not Northern Ireland.
SOURCES:

Canada—*The Labour Force, op. cit.*, June 1957, Table 2.

U.S.A.—*Current Population Reports, Labor Force, op. cit.*, Series P-57, July 1957, Table 5.

Great Britain—*Annual Abstract of Statistics*, 1957, *op. cit.*, Tables 8, 130.

An important influence in raising the participation rate of American women over that of British and Canadian women is that in the United States about 14 per cent of the female population is made up of non-white women, of whom nearly every second one is in the labour force as against 35 per cent of the white women.

II

Characteristics of Working Women

Unlike the men, for whom full-time paid work is taken for granted throughout their adult lives, no single pattern of working life describes the situation for all women.

It is true that a considerable proportion of the women working in Canada are employed continuously for the greater part of a lifetime. This group is largely made up of single women, but nowadays a woman's marriage does not necessarily interrupt her working life. A growing number of girls continue to work after marriage, and some contribute as many years to the labour force as single women or as men. Yet working life is, on the average, much shorter for women than for men. Many women, particularly those who are married, are in and out of the labour force depending on the pressure of home responsibilities.

The result is that at any one time the number of women working is much smaller than the number of men. Since at least 80 per cent of the men are usually at work, working men are probably not unlike a cross-section of the adult male population. This can hardly be said of working women because they represent a minority of Canadian women—about one quarter—and the situation of working women is likely to differ in many ways from that of the great majority of women who are not in paid employment.

It was stated in Chapter I that three of the main demographic factors affecting the working life of women are age, marriage and the presence of children. Naturally, these factors influence the composition of the female working force. Studies in the United States have shown that the most important of these is the presence of children.¹ Age in itself has the least influence on whether or not a woman is employed. However, since a high proportion of marriages and also of births take place in a relatively short age span in the life of woman, the three factors are inextricably intertwined.

¹ See *Tables of Working Life for Women, 1950*, U.S. Department of Labor Bulletin No. 1204.

Age

For men, marriage and fatherhood are bound to increase responsibility for providing income; women on the other hand, find that on becoming wives and mothers their obligations grow rather in another direction. In the age groups where most men are heads of families and likely to be earning money if at all possible, women are generally at the peak of a different kind of responsibility, the kind of responsibility that requires their presence at home. This brings about a decided drop in the proportion of women in the labour force in the age groups in which participation of men is highest.

As Table 6 shows, at all age levels a much higher proportion of men than of women are in the labour force. From age 20 on, the proportion of men working is more than twice as high as the proportion of women. As the years go by the gap widens.

Roughly half of the men are already at work when they are in their teens. By the time they have passed age 20 and until they reach 65—the retiring age for many—more than 90 per cent of the men are working. After age 65 one man in three is still on the job.

For women the pattern of working life is markedly different. About one-third of the teen-age girls are at work. In the 20-24 age group—the period of maximum participation for women—more than 45 per cent are in the labour force. The percentage is much higher for single women, probably approaching that for men of the same age; but the participation rate for all women is greatly reduced by the married women who already make up the majority in this age group. From age 25

Table 6

Women and Men in Labour Force By Age Groups, Canada, June 1958
(Estimates in 1,000's)

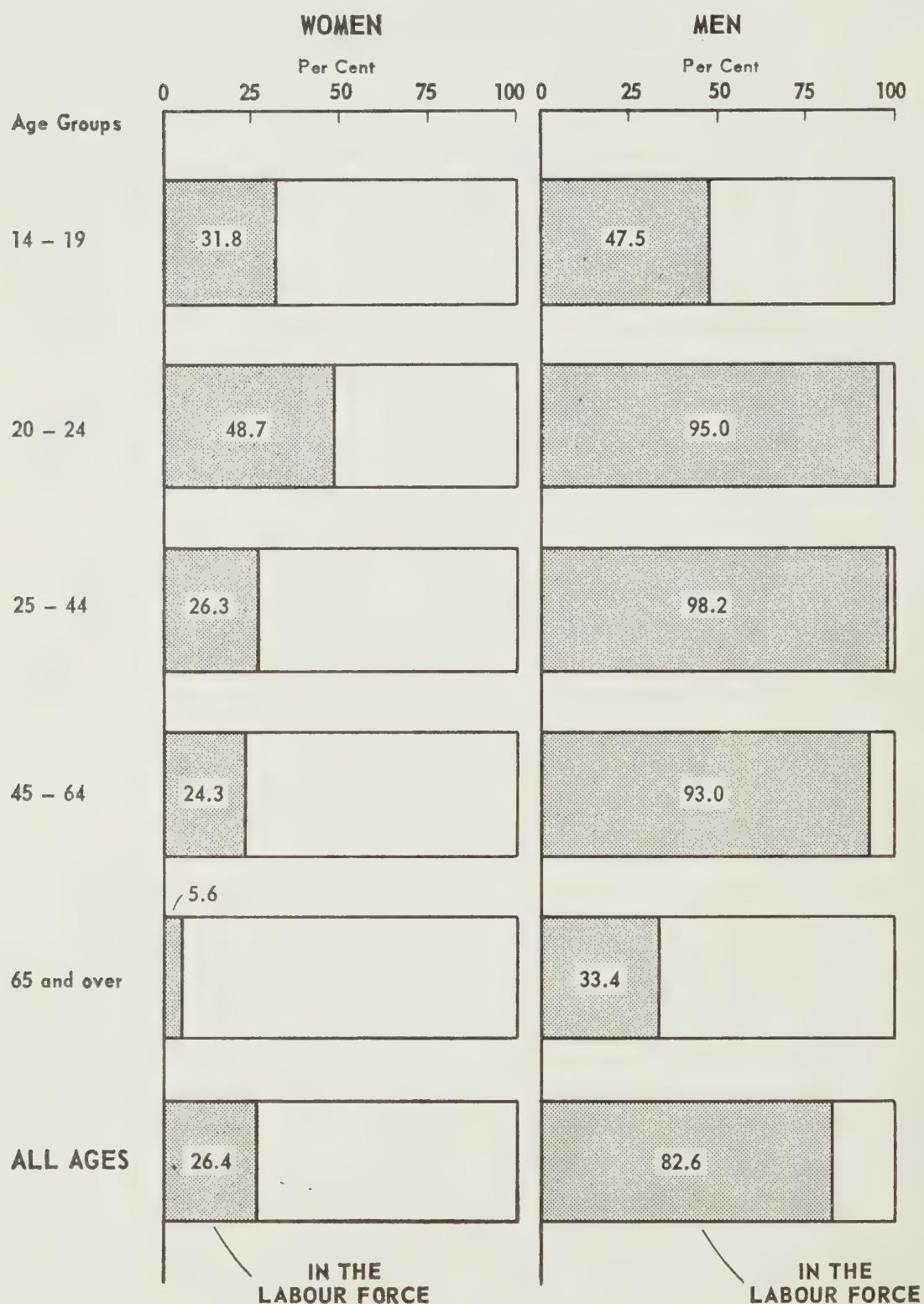
Age	Women		Men	
	No.	Percentage of Pop.	No.	Percentage of Pop.
14-19.....	238	31.8	362	47.5
20-24.....	275	48.7	513	95.0
25-44.....	605	26.3	2,179	98.2
45-64.....	346	24.3	1,359	93.0
65 and over.....	35	5.6	202	33.4
All ages.....	1,499	26.4	4,615	82.6

SOURCE:

The Labour Force, op. cit., June 1958, Tables 4, 5.

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**PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN AND OF MEN IN THE LABOUR FORCE
BY AGE GROUPS, JUNE 1958**



SOURCE: Table 6, p. 9.

on the proportion of women at work declines steadily. By the time women reach 65 years of age less than 6 per cent of them are in the labour force.

The strong demand for labour in recent years has brought more women out of the home into the office or factory. This has given them an opportunity to demonstrate their usefulness and to gain experience in new jobs.

There is an over-all tendency for a smaller proportion of women to engage in paid employment as the group advances in age. Yet during the past ten years the proportion of women in the 45 to 64 age group going out to work has been on the increase. This is to some extent a reflection of the ageing of the population, but the main factor has probably been the favourable economic situation in recent years.

Closely related to the active employment market which has characterized the post-war period of expansion is the dropping of the barrier to employment of married women. Now working girls are not only generally permitted, but they are often encouraged to stay on the job after they are married.

Also, many older women now employed started to work during the war years when they were a good deal younger and remained on the job when the war ended. Some have taken up employment again when responsibility for care of young children lessened. In any case, in 1958 about 24 per cent of the women aged 45 to 64 were in the labour force, as against 16 per cent ten years earlier. In the 25 to 44 year age group the increase has not been as great—from 24 to 26 per cent. In actual numbers, however, it represents a greater addition to the labour force (an estimated 180,000 as against 157,000).

Of Canadians 14 and over not in the labour force, more than 80 per cent are women. As Table 7 shows, about three-quarters of these women are in the age span that takes in most of what is generally thought of as the working life (between ages 20 and 65) and the main reason why they are not in the labour force is that much of their time and energy are concentrated on home and family.

For men not in the labour force, the situation is quite different. More than 80 per cent of them are either past age 65 or boys still in their teens. Less than 20 per cent are in what may be called the main working-life-span. If they are of working age and not at work, it is a safe guess that few men are kept from outside employment by duties connected with the home.

Table 7

Women and Men Not in Labour Force by Age Groups, Canada, June 1958
(Estimates in 1,000's)

Age	Women		Men	
	No.	%	No.	%
14-19.....	511	12.3	400	41.2
20-24.....	290	7.0	27	2.8
25-44.....	1,696	40.7	39	4.0
45-64.....	1,079	25.9	103	10.6
65 and over.....	593	14.2	402	41.4
All ages.....	4,169	100.1	971	100.0

SOURCE:

The Labour Force, op. cit., June 1958, Table 4.

The question why those not working are out of the labour force is answered to a considerable extent by the labour force survey information dividing non-workers into four broad classes according to whether they are keeping house, retired or voluntarily idle, going to school or permanently unable or too old to work. Within these classes there is no classification by age. However, since those still at school are likely to be young, and retired people are generally in their later years, it can be inferred from Table 8 that age tends to influence the working life of men and of women in different ways.

Half of the men not in the labour force are retired or permanently incapacitated, and another 37 per cent are still at school. Most of the

Table 8

Women and Men Not In Labour Force, by Class of Non-Worker, Canada, June 1958
(Estimates in 1,000's)

Class of Non-Worker	Women		Men	
	No.	%	No.	%
Keeping house.....	3,561	85.4	*	*
Going to school.....	362	8.7	358	36.9
Retired or voluntarily idle.....	182	4.4	483	49.7
Permanently unable or too old to work.....	52	1.2	109	11.2
Other.....	12	0.3	17	1.8
Total.....	4,169	100.0	971	100.0

* Less than 10,000 and less than 1 per cent of total.

SOURCE:

The Labour Force, op. cit., June 1958, Table 11.

remaining ones are permanently unable or too old to work. On the other hand, 85 per cent of the women not at work are keeping house. No doubt many older women shown as keeping house would be listed as retired if they were men. There is always something a woman can do around the house.

Leading Occupations by Age

Forty-five per cent of all women in the Canadian labour force were between 20 and 34 years old at the time of the 1951 Census. Teen-agers made up 17 per cent, so that more than 60 per cent were under 35. Of the remainder, 17 per cent were between 35 and 44, 12 per cent from 45 to 54, and 9 per cent 55 or over.

Because the labour force surveys do not break down the age group 25 to 44 years, it is not possible to make comparisons for more recent years. Further, only the census gives the number of women in each occupation by age as shown in Table 9. At the time of the 1951 Census nearly 80 per cent of all women workers were in the 20 occupations listed.

There are important variations in the age distribution in different occupations. For instance, there is an unusually high proportion of teen-agers among packers and wrappers, labourers, telephone operators, waitresses and household workers. These are either occupations that require little training or those in which training is provided on the job. Teen-agers are naturally few among teachers and nurses, both professions requiring at least high school graduation before a girl begins to study for her vocation.

Nearly half of the female proprietors and managers of retail stores and also of dressmakers and seamstresses are 45 or over. A high proportion of housekeepers and matrons, cooks, practical nurses and hotel and cafe employees also are over 45. Charworkers and cleaners are not quite numerous enough to be among the 20 leading occupations, but it should be mentioned that 60 per cent of them are 45 or older. Most of the common occupations for older women are related to the kinds of work a woman does in the home, and a number of them can be satisfactorily combined with home duties. They are also the kinds of occupations that are open to women who wish to enter the labour force in middle age, not having had much training or work experience before marriage. Domestic work of various kinds always seems to be available to women who find it hard to compete for employment that is considered more desirable.

Table 9

Percentage Distribution of Women in 20 Leading Occupations
by Age Groups, Canada, 1951

Occupation	Age Group						
	14-19	20-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55 plus	All ages
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Stenographers and Typists.....	17.3	31.4	27.9	13.3	7.2	3.0	100.1
Office Clerks.....	20.7	27.3	24.5	14.3	8.8	4.4	100.0
Sales Clerks.....	21.0	19.9	24.0	19.0	10.5	5.5	99.9
Hotel, Cafe, and Private Household Workers, n.e.s.....	23.6	17.2	16.2	14.4	13.3	15.3	100.0
Teachers and Instructors	7.8	23.3	22.1	22.0	16.2	8.6	100.0
Bookkeepers and Cashiers.....	15.0	27.5	28.5	15.8	8.9	4.3	100.0
Nurses, Graduate and in Training.....	10.4	33.7	24.6	15.4	9.5	6.4	100.0
Sewers and Sewing Machine Operators.....	20.0	21.2	22.9	18.0	12.0	5.9	100.0
Waitresses.....	25.9	23.4	26.3	15.0	6.4	3.0	100.0
Telephone Operators.....	26.4	29.1	19.1	12.5	9.6	3.2	99.9
Housekeepers and Matrons.....	10.7	11.1	16.3	18.0	18.0	25.9	100.0
Farm Labourers.....	21.6	14.6	22.5	19.7	13.7	7.9	100.0
Labourers, Other.....	28.0	20.8	21.0	14.3	10.0	5.9	100.0
Nurses, Practical.....	15.0	20.0	19.2	15.6	14.0	16.3	100.1
Proprietors and Managers, Retail Trade	0.3	3.4	17.8	30.2	25.5	22.8	100.0
Laundresses, Cleaners, Dyers.....	17.6	17.7	22.2	20.8	13.4	8.4	100.1
Packers and Wrappers, n.e.s.....	29.0	22.0	21.7	15.2	8.2	3.8	99.9
Cooks.....	6.4	9.5	19.3	25.6	21.9	17.3	100.0
Dressmakers and Seamstresses, not in factory	4.8	8.6	17.2	21.4	20.6	27.4	100.0
Barbers, Hairdressers, Manicurists.....	9.5	18.2	33.1	25.1	10.4	3.6	99.9
All Occupations.....	16.9	22.1	23.0	17.2	11.9	8.8	99.9

NOTE: Includes Newfoundland but not Yukon and Northwest Territories.

SOURCE:

Census of Canada, 1951, Volume 4, Table 11.

Marital Status

Until recent years the great majority of working women in Canada were the main if not the sole support of themselves and their dependents, if any. To-day a growing number are second income-earners in the family.

Before the First World War, for a married woman to go out to work was practically unheard of. Even at the time of the 1931 Census only 10 per cent of the women at work were married; 81 per cent were single, and the remainder were widowed or divorced. Ten years later the proportion single was still 80 per cent.

It was during World War II that a tremendous change took place in the marital status of the female working force. This was revealed in the first post-war census of 1951. It became known then that of all working women, 30 per cent were married. (See Table 10.) This trend has continued, and according to the labour force survey estimates, by June 1958, the proportion married had risen to over 40 per cent.

Table 10
**Marital Status of Women 14 and Over in Labour Force,
Canada, 1931-1951 and 1958**

Marital Status	1931		1941‡		1951		June 1958†	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	(Estimates in 1,000's)	%
Single.....	537,100	80.7	665,623	79.9	723,433	62.1	668	46.1
Married*.....	66,798	10.0	105,942	12.7	348,961	30.0	620	42.8
Other.....	61,335	9.2	61,237	7.4	91,927	7.9	162	11.2
Not Stated.....	69	—	38	—	—	—	—	—
Total.....	665,302	99.9	832,840	100.0	1,164,321	100.0	1,450	100.1

NOTE: Includes Newfoundland (1951 on) but not Yukon and Northwest Territories.

‡ Not including persons on active service.

* Includes permanently separated.

† With jobs.

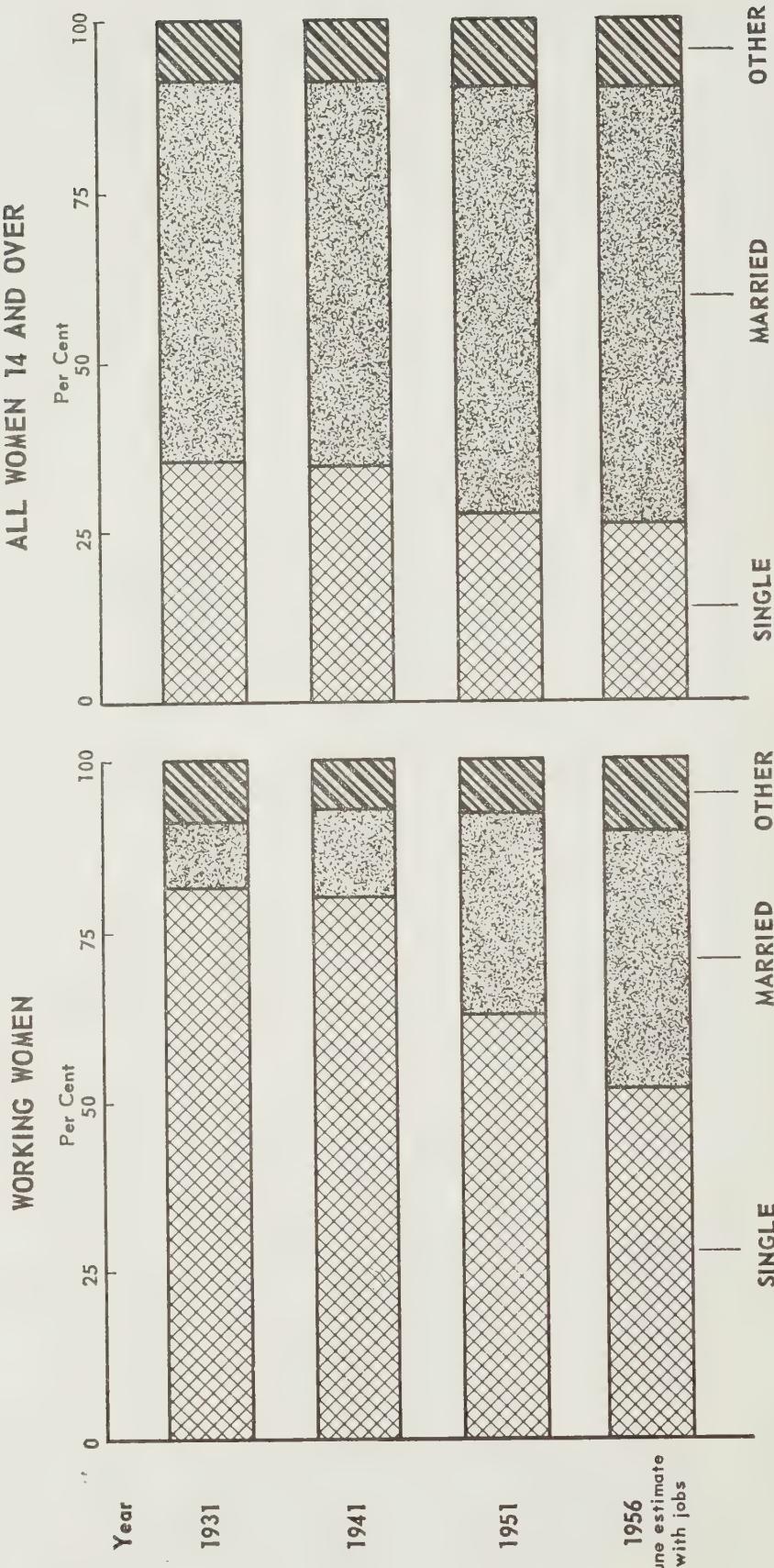
SOURCES:

Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada, 1901-51, DBS, Table 9; *The Labour Force, op. cit.*, June 1958, Table 9.

Single women still form the backbone of the female labour force. Although they now make up less than half of the working women, their rate of participation in paid employment is much higher than that of married women. (See Table 11.) Single women are also more likely to work for many years without interruption, and a higher proportion of them than of married working women are full-time workers.

It is in the industrialized province of Ontario that the highest proportion of married women engage in paid employment. British Columbia and Manitoba are next. All other provinces were below the national

MARITAL STATUS OF WORKING WOMEN AND OF ALL WOMEN
1931-1956



SOURCE: Table 10, p. 15 and *Labour Force Survey*, June 1956; Table 15, p. 21. See footnotes to tables.

Table 11

Percentage of Women 14 and Over in Labour Force by Marital Status, Canada, June 1931-1951 and 1956

Census Year	Marital Status			
	Single	Married*	Other	All 14 and over
	%	%	%	%
1931.....	44.8	3.4	21.0	19.4
1941.....	46.4	4.5	16.9	20.2
1951.....	54.1	11.2	19.3	23.6
1956.....	48.5	14.2	25.1	24.0

NOTE: Includes Newfoundland (1951 on) but not Yukon and Northwest Territories.

* Includes permanently separated.

SOURCE:

Census of Canada, 1931, Vol. 3, Tables 9, 12; 1941, Vol. 3, Tables 3, 7; 1951, Vol. 2, Table 1; 1956, Tables 28, 29. Also *Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada, op. cit.*, Table 9, and *The Labour Force, op. cit.*, June 1956, Table 9.

average of 11.2 per cent of married women working in 1951 (Table 12). It is noticeable that in provinces where a high proportion of all women work, the proportion of married women working is also likely to be high. No doubt availability of jobs has a good deal to do with it. Quebec is a striking exception to this general rule. It is a highly industrialized province, and a higher proportion of women work there

Table 12

Percentage of Married Women and of All Women 14 and Over in Labour Force, Canada and Provinces, 1951

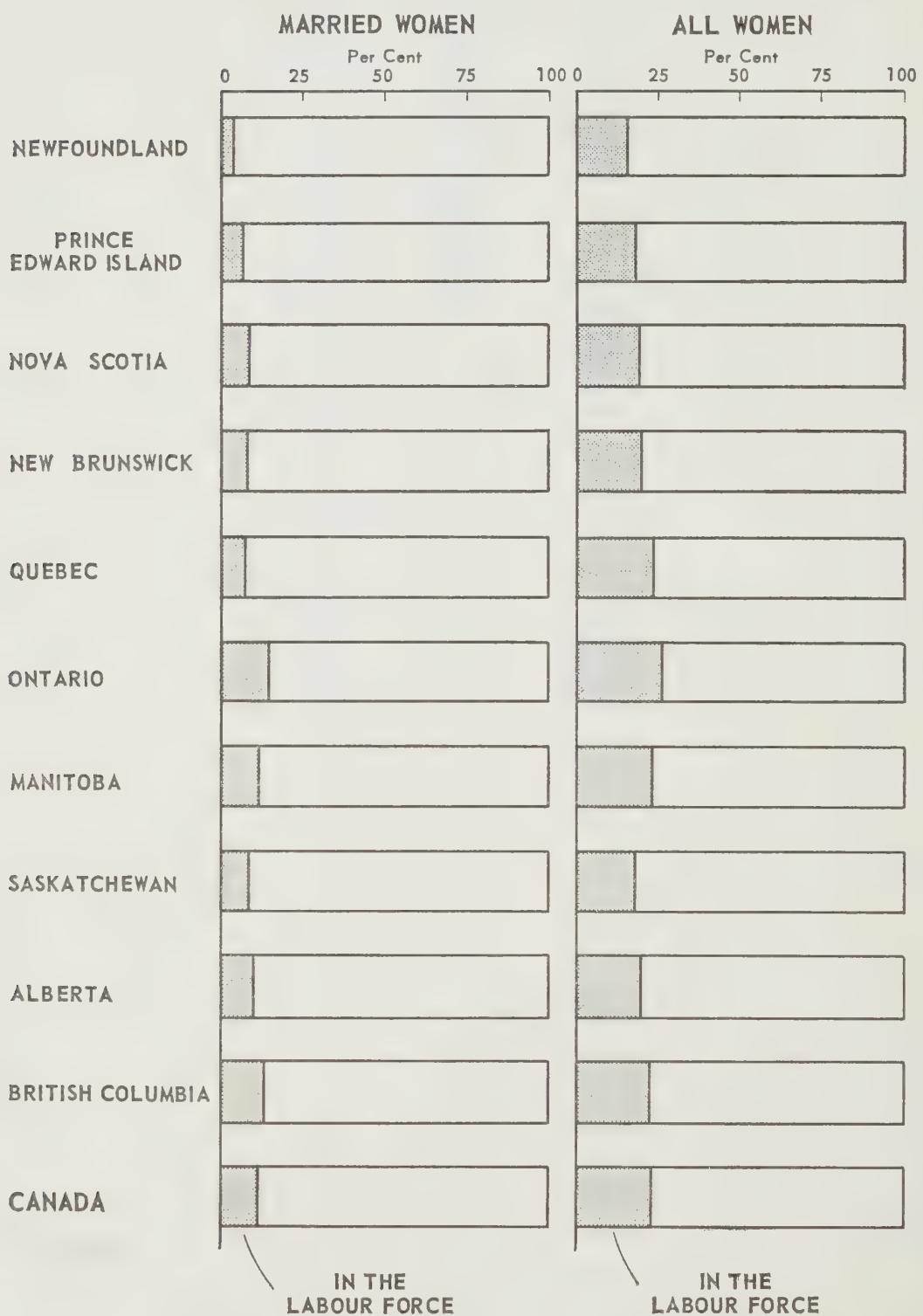
Province	Percent in Labour Force	
	Married	All
Newfoundland.....	4.6	15.5
Prince Edward Island.....	7.1	18.1
Nova Scotia.....	8.4	19.4
New Brunswick.....	8.0	20.0
Quebec.....	7.4	24.4
Ontario.....	15.0	26.0
Manitoba.....	11.9	23.8
Saskatchewan.....	8.9	18.3
Alberta.....	9.9	20.0
British Columbia.....	13.3	23.0
Canada.....	11.2	23.6

SOURCE:

Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. 2, Table 2 and Appendix Table 1; Vol. 4, Table 11.

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PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN IN THE LABOUR FORCE
 CANADA AND THE PROVINCES, 1951
 MARRIED WOMEN AND ALL WOMEN



SOURCE: Table 12, p. 17. See footnotes to table.

than in Canada as a whole; yet the proportion of married women working outside the home is much below the national average. This is a reflection of the social and cultural traditions of the province.¹

As Table 13 shows (see also Table 5) not only is the percentage of women in the labour force higher in the United States than in Great Britain, with both countries ahead of Canada in this respect, but the difference is particularly striking in the case of married women. For them the participation rate is twice as high in the United States as in Canada. One of the reasons for this is that there is a higher proportion of young marriages south of the border, and it is these young wives who are most likely to be working.

Table 13

**Percentage of Women in Labour Force by Marital Status,
Canada, U.S.A. and Great Britain**

Marital Status	In Labour Force		
	Canada June 1956	U.S.A. May 1956	Great Britain April 1951
	%	%	%
Single.....	48.5	57.2	72.9
Married.....	14.2	29.9*	21.5
Other.....	25.1	37.5	20.9
All Women.....	24.0	36.8	34.5

NOTE: Figures for Canada and U.S.A. include women 14 and over with jobs; for Great Britain, 15 and over. Great Britain includes England, Scotland and Wales but not Northern Ireland. Canada includes Newfoundland (1951 on) but not Yukon and Northwest Territories.

* Husband present.

SOURCES:

Canada—*The Labour Force*, *op. cit.*, June 1956, Table 9; *Census of Canada*, 1956, Tables 21, 23.

U.S.A.—*Current Population Reports, Labor Force*, *op. cit.*, Series P-57, July 1956, Table 3.

Great Britain—1951 Census, Part I, Table II-3.

For the adult female population there is, as might be expected, a great difference between participation rates of single and married women. This becomes clear when you consider that in 1956 the female population from which the labour force is drawn included some 700,000 teen-agers (Table 14), more than 90 per cent of whom were

¹ Labour force figures by regions (not available for smaller provinces separately) show that the participation rate for women continues to grow in Ontario and Quebec. In June 1958, the rate for Ontario was 29.4 and for Quebec 26.0.

single. It is known that in 1951 about one-half of all teen-age girls were still in school, and the situation is probably somewhat similar to-day. Except for a small proportion who would be part-time workers, and those who work during the holidays, school girls are not generally in the labour force.

Teen-age girls account for nearly half of all single women 14 and over. By including them in the population for the purpose of calculating participation rates, the rate for single women is greatly reduced as compared with others. Studies in the United States have shown that for single women in their twenties the participation rate is very high, approaching that for men. This is also true in Great Britain. The situation is similar in Canada: in 1951 more than three-quarters of all single women in their twenties were wage-earners. But it is precisely in the twenties that the ranks of the single women are rapidly thinned by marriage. Table 14 shows that by the time Canadian girls reach the age group 20 to 24, more than half of them are married. It is even more striking that of all women 25 years of age or older, three out of four are married.

Married women are not as likely to be working as single women. Fifteen per cent of married women in their twenties are wage-earners as against 75 per cent of single girls in the same age group. Once girls reach the age where a very high proportion are married, that factor is sufficient to bring about a drop in the participation rate for all women.

Table 14

Female Population 14 and Over by Marital Status and Age Group, Canada, 1956

Age	Marital Status							
	Single		Married		Other		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
14-19.....	653,639	93.1	48,169	6.9	146	0.0+	701,954	100.0
20-24.....	248,348	44.3	310,838	55.4	1,511	0.3	560,697	100.0
25+.....	492,682	11.7	3,195,478	75.6	536,139	12.7	4,224,299	100.0
All+.....	1,394,669	25.4	3,554,485	64.8	537,796	9.8	5,486,950	100.0

NOTE: Includes Newfoundland but not Yukon and Northwest Territories.

SOURCE: *Census of Canada, 1956*, Tables 21, 28.

The effect of the high marriage rate during and since the war is revealed in Table 15. As the proportion of married women in the population grows, the proportion of single women, who in an earlier day were almost the sole source from which women workers were drawn, drops.

Table 15

Female Population 14 and Over by Marital Status, Canada, 1931 to 1956

Census	Year	Marital Status								Total	
		Single		Married*		Other		Not Stated			
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1931		1,198,571	35.0	1,935,002	56.5	291,491	8.5	222	0+	3,425,286	100.0
1941		1,435,175	34.8	2,333,358	56.5	361,389	8.8	122	0+	4,130,044	100.1
1951		1,337,947	27.1	3,119,824	63.2	475,636	9.6	—	—	4,933,407	99.9
1956		1,394,669	25.4	3,554,485	64.8	537,796	9.8	—	—	5,486,950	100.0

NOTE: Includes Newfoundland (1951 on) but not Yukon and Northwest Territories.

* Includes permanently separated.

SOURCE:

Census of Canada: 1931, Vol. 3, Tables 9, 12; 1941, Vol. 3, Tables 3, 7; 1951, Vol. 2, Table 30, Appendix Table A-1; 1956, Tables 21, 29.

It has been shown above (Table 8) that the bulk of the women not in the labour force are keeping house. Most of them are married. Since practically all men of working age are now in the labour force, when a national emergency requires a sudden increase in the working force, it is necessary to look to the married women not now working outside their homes. In two world wars in which Canada was involved married women went to work in large numbers and contributed greatly to the national effort.

The Married Working Woman

It has been shown in Table 10 that two out of every five Canadian working women are now married, and there seems to be no doubt that many married women are regular members of the labour force.

Married women who are employed full time for years and with every intention of continuing to work, are in much the same position as men or single women. Then there is a large group of married women who go in and out of the labour force as demand rises and falls in the work they are equipped to do, and depending on the pressure of home duties.

Because married women do not generally depend solely on their own earnings they constitute a more flexible source of labour than other workers. Many are happy to return periodically to being full-time housewives, holding themselves in readiness to take employment in seasonal industries at peak periods. A good example of this is in the canning of fruits and vegetables.

It is also common for married women to work a few hours each day in retail stores where the peak business period coincides with the time when children are away at school. Some mothers work as waitresses in the evenings when their husbands are home to keep an eye on the children.

A survey made by the Department of Labour of the socio-economic situation of a selected sample of married women working for pay¹ revealed that the women in the sample had more schooling than the average for Canadian women; nearly one in three had vocational training of some kind, the largest number being trained for office work. It was noticeable that the kinds of jobs the married women were doing were determined to a considerable extent by the education and training they had received. Since two-thirds of all Canadian women 15 and over are married, an increasing number of married women are finding themselves in the employment market at some time during their lives. The importance for girls and women of adding to their training and skills cannot be over-emphasized.

Although many single women too have responsibility for home and family that may affect their role as workers, it is mainly married women who carry the double load of work at home and in the working place outside the home.

The Canadian survey showed that the overwhelming reason why these women take on outside work in addition to looking after home and family is the economic one. Except for women who are the sole earners in their families most of them said they felt the family could exist without their added income. But the incomes of the husbands were generally so low that in these days of high prices the budget would obviously be strained by the needs of a growing family.

Most of the married women interviewed were full-time workers. Many of them would like to have shorter hours, particularly an earlier end to the working day. But they generally felt that unless they worked full time they could not earn enough to make the effort worthwhile.

Part-time Work

Because of their home and family responsibilities it is not surprising that women make up the great majority of those who work part time. And of course part-time work is important to women. In order to conform with the DBS part-time work is defined as 35 hours a week or less.

¹ *Married Women Working for Pay in Eight Canadian Cities*, Department of Labour, Canada, 1958. Obtainable from the Queen's Printer, 25 cents.

Both men and women work part time now and then for reasons beyond their own control such as a shut-down of the working place, illness, the weather, vacation, etc.

But there is a fairly large group of workers who are on a regular schedule of part-time work, year in and year out. This group is of particular interest, and because a high proportion of them are women a special tabulation was made by the DBS for one month (October 1957). This showed that one out of every seven women in the labour force was a regular part-time worker. On the other hand, only about one working man in 50 was on a regular schedule of part-time work. (See Table 16.) There would no doubt be some seasonal variation, but nevertheless the detailed data for the two sexes are of interest.

Table 16
**Regular Part-time Workers as Percentage of Labour Force,
 by Sex, Canada, October 1957**
 (Estimates in 1,000's)

Sex	Labour Force	Regular Part-time Workers	Regular Part-time Workers as Percentage of Total Labour Force
Male.....	4,546	105	2.3
Female.....	1,459	209	14.3
Total.....	6,005	314	5.2

NOTE: Regular part-time workers are persons at work less than 35 hours who usually work less than 35 hours a week.

SOURCE:

The Labour Force, op. cit., October 1957, and special tabulation by DBS for same date.

Table 17
**Regular Part-time Workers as Percentage of Labour Force by Age Groups,
 Women and Men, Canada, October 1957**

Age Group	Regular Part-time Workers as Percentage of Total Labour Force	
	Women	Men
14-24.....	7.8	6.4
25-44.....	16.0	0.6
45 plus.....	20.4	2.5

NOTE: See footnote to Table 16.

SOURCE: As for Table 16.

In the case of men, regular part-time work occupies an insignificant proportion of workers except for the very young. Even in the 14-24 age group a higher proportion of girls than of young men work part time on a regular schedule. As the years go by, this gap widens. For women the proportion of regular part-time workers increases with age. (See Table 17.)

When the data for regular part-time workers are examined by marital status it is revealed that although married women make up less than half of the female working force, 70 per cent of the women who regularly work part time are married. (See Table 18.) "Other" working women, (i.e., single, widowed, and divorced) are much more likely to be employed full time.

Table 18
Women Regular Part-time Workers and Women in Labour Force by
Marital Status, Canada, October 1957
 (Estimates in 1,000's)

Marital Status	Regular Part-time Workers		Labour Force	
	No.	%	No.	%
Married.....	146	69.9	606	42.4
Other.....	63	30.1	822	57.6
Total.....	209	100.0	1,428	100.0

NOTE: See footnote to Table 16.

SOURCE: As for Table 16.

In fact, of all married working women roughly one in four is a regular part-time worker. Of women of "other" marital status only about one in 12 regularly works part time. (See Table 19.)

Table 19
Percentage Distribution of Married and Other Women Workers by Regular
Part-time Workers and Others, Canada, October 1957
 (Estimates in 1,000's)

Marital Status	Regular Part-	Other	Labour Force
	time Workers	Workers	
	%	%	%
Married.....	24.1	75.9	100.0
Other.....	7.7	92.3	100.0
All Women Workers.....	14.6	85.4	100.0

NOTE: See footnote to Table 16.

SOURCE: As for Table 16.

III

Occupations of Women

The Kinds of Work Women Do

In Canada today working women are represented in practically all occupations, but the great majority are still found in relatively few broad occupational classes. (See Table 20.) Many are doing work that has traditionally been done by women, but was formerly done in the home. In addition, there is a large army of clerical workers in a variety of office jobs, most of them unheard of 50 years ago. Some of these jobs did not exist before World War II. As Table 20 shows, office workers now make up the largest group of working women. The number of women working in banks grew rapidly during World War II and shows no signs of falling off.

Work formerly done in the home, but now to a considerable extent performed elsewhere, includes preparation and serving of food, manufacture, distribution, cleaning and repair of clothing, as well as

Table 20
Percentage Distribution of Working Women by Leading Occupational Groups, Canada, 1901-1951 and 1958

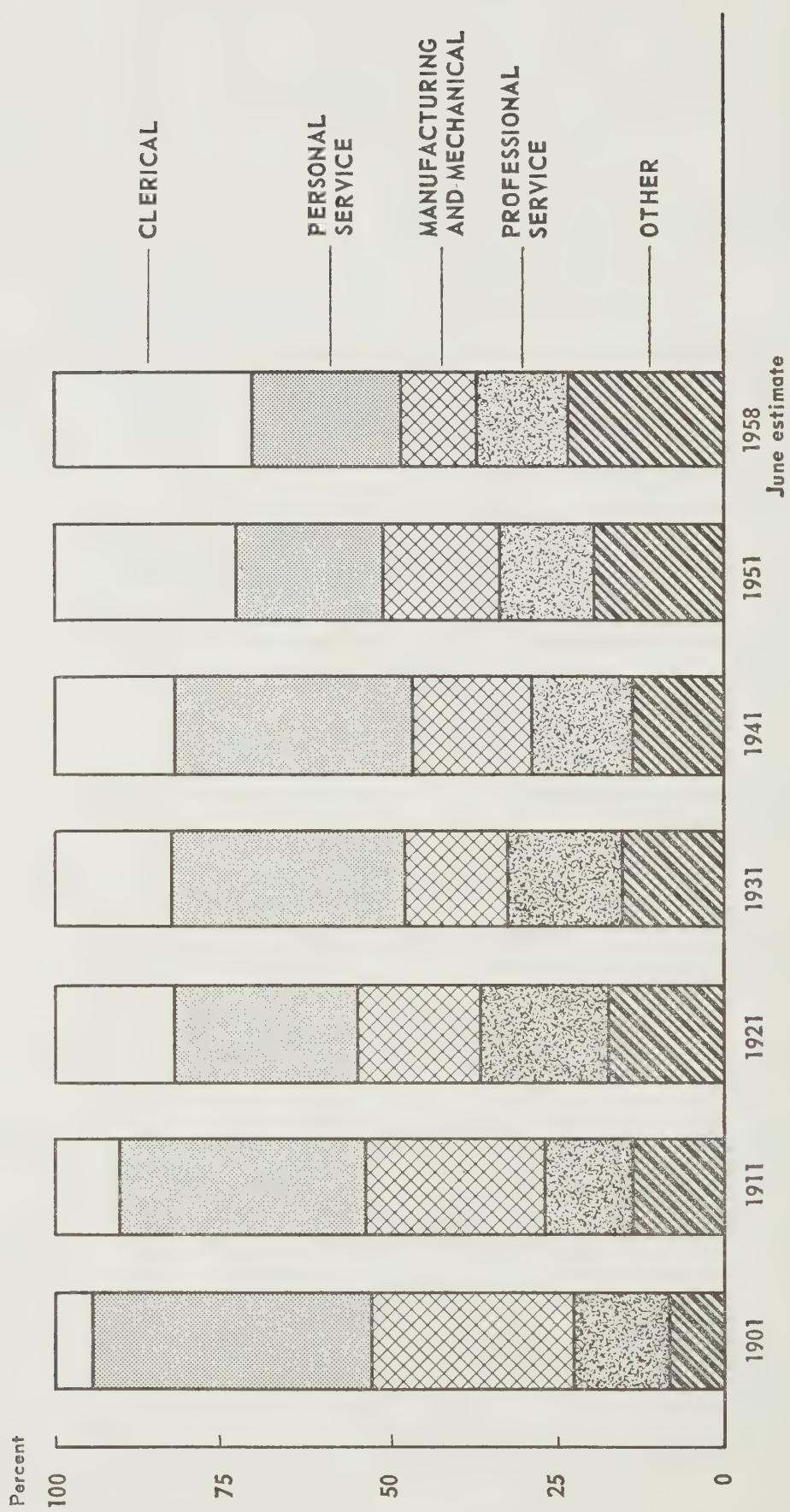
Occupational Group							Estimate for June 1958
	1901 %	1911 %	1921 %	1931 %	1941 %	1951 %	
Clerical.....	5.3	9.2	18.5	17.7	18.5	27.4	30.1
Personal Service.....	42.2	37.6	27.1	34.3	34.7	21.7	21.8
Manufacturing and Mechanical.....	29.6	26.5	18.3	15.2	17.8	17.6	11.7
Professional Service....	14.6	12.5	19.0	17.6	15.3	14.3	13.2
Other.....	8.4	14.1	17.1	15.2	13.8	19.1	23.2
Total.....	100.1	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.1	100.1	100.0

NOTE: Census figures do not include Newfoundland, Yukon and Northwest Territories.

SOURCES:

Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada, *op. cit.*, Table 5; *The Labour Force*, *op. cit.*, June 1958, Supplementary Table.

LEADING OCCUPATIONS OF WOMEN IN CANADA
1901-1951 AND 1958



SOURCE: Table 20, p. 25. See footnotes to table.

non-professional care of the sick. When women looking after households other than their own are added to those in occupations already named, roughly three-quarters of all working women are accounted for.

Professional women constitute about 14 per cent of the female working force. They are discussed separately. (See p. 58.)

Ever since the turn of the century the same four broad occupational groups have led the employment field for women, although the order of importance has altered.

The most remarkable change has been rise of the clerical group from fourth place in 1911 to first. It came to light at the 1951 Census that clerical workers had surpassed all others in number, including those in personal service, who had until that time been most numerous of women workers. The labour force survey estimates for 1958 show that clerical work continues in the forefront, with personal service next.

Between 1901 and 1921 the proportion of clerical workers more than trebled. The depression brought a drop in the percentage in clerical jobs; both the 1931 Census and that of 1941 showed a lower proportion than did the Census of 1921. But the great influx of women into offices during the Second World War showed up in the Census of 1951, just as the 1921 Census revealed the increase in women office workers that occurred in the First World War.

On the other hand, as Table 20 shows, during the depression of the thirties the personal service group expanded. When World War II opened up opportunities in other fields, women in service jobs moved into them.

The above-named four leading occupational groups for women in Canada were also the leading groups in the United States for women 18 years of age and over in 1956.¹ There as in Canada, clerical work is now far in front.

This concentration of women in a few broad occupational groups is clearly reflected in the more detailed breakdown by actual jobs the women are doing. According to the 1951 Census more than 60 per cent of the working women were employed in ten occupations (See Table 21) the majority of which fit into the broad groups in Table 20.

These ten leading occupations are also, with one exception—the office clerk—occupations in which women outnumber men. Table 21 shows that in the ten leading occupations, women made up nearly 70 per cent of the workers in 1951, although at that time the proportion

¹ *Current Population Reports, Labor Force, op. cit.*, Series P-50, No. 75, July 1957, Table G.

of women in the whole labour force was only about 22 per cent. Practically all nurses, telephone operators, stenographers and typists were women.

Table 21

X Ten Leading Occupations of Women in Canada, 1951

Occupation	Number	Per cent	Women as Percentage of All Workers
Stenographers and Typists.....	133,485	11.5	95.8
Office Clerks.....	118,025	10.3	42.7
Sales Clerks.....	95,443	8.3	55.1
Hotel, Cafe and Private Household Workers, n.e.s.....	88,775	7.7	89.1
School Teachers.....	75,796	6.6	72.1
Bookkeepers and Cashiers.....	54,713	4.8	61.9
Nurses, Graduate and in Training.....	49,851	4.4	98.2
Sewing Machine Operators.....	46,011	4.0	88.9
Waitresses.....	40,735	3.6	66.7
Telephone Operators.....	29,587	2.6	96.5
10 Occupations.....	732,421	62.9	69.4
Total female labour force.....	1,164,321	100.0	22.0

NOTE: Including Newfoundland, but not Yukon and Northwest Territories.

SOURCE:

Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. 4, Table 11.

Concentration of women workers in a few broad industrial groups is even more noticeable. The three divisions, Service, Manufacturing, and Trade account for more than 80 per cent of all working women. This is true also in the United States and in Great Britain. (See Table 22.) The similarity in the patterns of Canada and the United States is striking. In Great Britain manufacturing employs a much larger part of the female working population, and indeed of the whole working force, than in North America. The situation in Canada's two central provinces, Quebec and Ontario, more nearly approaches the British pattern. The number of employees in the manufacturing industry in each province is not available for 1956, but even at the time of the 1951 Census in these two provinces about 30 per cent of the working women were employed in factories.

WOMEN STILL PREDOMINATE

. . . . IN THE PROFESSIONS THAT HAVE
BEEN TRADITIONALLY FEMININE

TEACHERS



1931 = 78%
1941 = 75%
1951 = 72%

NURSES



1931 = 100%
1941 = 99%
1951 = 97%

LIBRARIANS



1931 = 80%
1941 = 85%
1951 = 87%

IN THE PAST 25 YEARS

. . . . INCREASING NUMBERS HAVE ESTABLISHED
THEMSELVES IN PROFESSIONS THAT USED TO BE MAINLY
MEN'S OR HAVE ENTERED ENTIRELY NEW FIELDS

CHEMISTS
AND METALLURGISTS

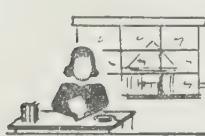
1931 = 4%
1941 = 3%
1951 = 10%

LAWYERS
AND NOTARIES

1931 = 1%
1941 = 2%
1951 = 2%

PHYSICIANS
AND SURGEONS

1931 = 2%
1941 = 3%
1951 = 5%

PROFESSORS
AND COLLEGE PRINCIPALS

1931 = 8%
1941 = 7%
1951 = 15%

ACTUARIES



1951 = 8%

DRAUGHTSMEN
AND DESIGNERS

1931 = 2%
1941 = 3%
1951 = 5%

LABORATORY TECHNICIANS



1951 = 38%

DIETITIANS



1951 = 100%

STATISTICIANS



1951 = 17%

Percentages represent the proportion of women in the profession.

SOURCE: *Census of Canada, 1951; Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada.*

Table 22

Working Women by Major Industrial Groups, Canada, U.S.A.
and Great Britain, 1956

(Estimates in 1,000's)

Industry	Canada June		U.S.A. annual average		Great Britain June	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Service*	508	42.5	5,259	42.2	2,772	35.0
Manufacturing	289	24.2	2,543	20.4	3,018	38.1
Trade	218	18.2	2,848	22.9	1,351	17.1
Other	181	15.1	1,806	14.5	778	9.8
Total	1,196	100.0	12,456	100.0	7,919	100.0

NOTE: Figures for Canada include women 14 and over with jobs; for U.S.A., those 35 and over; for Great Britain, 15 and over. Great Britain includes England, Scotland and Wales but not Northern Ireland.

* The proportion in the Service industry in the U.S.A. is no doubt exaggerated because only women 35 or over are included.

SOURCES:

Canada—*The Labour Force*, *op. cit.*, June 1956, Supplementary Table.

U.S.A.—*Current Population Reports, Labor Force*, *op. cit.*, Series P-50, No. 75, July 1957, Table H.

Great Britain—*Annual Abstract of Statistics*, *op. cit.*, 1957, Table 130.

The Impact of Women on Various Fields of Work

The growth in number of working women during the last half-century has made the greatest impact on the clerical field where they now represent about 60 per cent of the workers. Women still make up the majority of personal service workers, and they have made considerable inroads also in many other areas of work. (See Table 23.) Women have always been a small part of the agricultural working force, but the proportion is higher now than ever before.

At the time of the 1951 Census there were a few occupational groups (fishing and trapping, logging, mining and quarrying, construction, and labouring) in which women made up less than 1 per cent of the workers. But in all other occupations the number of women was considerable, and in some the proportion of women has grown more or less steadily for over 50 years.

It is only in clerical work that every census since 1901 has shown an increase in proportion of women among the workers. Many factors have entered into this. In the early days of the century office work was not as specialized and extensive as it is today. There was little use of

MAIN INDUSTRIES EMPLOYING WOMEN, CANADA, U.S.A. AND GREAT BRITAIN



SOURCE: Table 22, p. 30. See footnotes to table.

typewriters and other mechanical equipment. The man in the office did a little of everything. That situation, combined with the then-prevailing notion that young ladies with better-than-average education did not go to work unless necessity forced them to do so, helped to account for the fact that nearly 80 per cent of the office workers were men.

Although the increase in proportion of women in offices has been steady, it was not until the Second World War that they finally became the majority. This first came to light in the Census of 1951. That was also, as noted above, the first time that clerical work took the lead as an employer of women.

Men continue to predominate in trade and financial occupations, but women have increased their share of the jobs, particularly as retail sales clerks. In factory work, and also in personal service occupations, the proportion of women has declined somewhat since 1911. The increase in proportion of women in transportation and communication is largely due to growth in number of telephone operators. In the professions women have made up roughly the same proportion over the years until recent labour force survey data show that the over-all proportion of women among professional workers has fallen.

Table 23
Women as Percentage of Workers in Major Occupational Groups,
Canada, 1901-1951 and 1958

Occupational Group							Estimate for June 1958
	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Clerical.....	21.4	31.7	41.4	45.4	49.1	58.1	62.1
Personal Service.....	67.7	66.5	64.4	64.0	66.6	57.0	56.8
Professional Service.....	46.7	45.8	54.3	53.1	51.3	47.6	38.7
Trade and Finance.....	7.8	12.9	16.2	16.0	20.0	24.4	35.4
Manufacturing.....	23.5	26.0	22.0	20.4	20.0	20.6	17.0
Transportation and Communication.....	1.6	3.4	7.4	6.2	5.4	8.1	7.6
Agriculture.....	1.2	1.7	1.7	2.0	1.8	3.9	8.5
All Occupations.....	13.4	13.4	15.5	17.0	19.8	22.2	25.0

NOTE: Census figures do not include Newfoundland, Yukon and Northwest Territories.

SOURCES:

Occupation and Industry Trends in Canada, op. cit., Table 5; The Labour Force, op. cit., June 1958, Supplementary Table.

Professional Women

Women are gradually making a name for themselves in many professions once regarded as men's work. Yet the great majority of professional women are in fields that have been traditionally considered "suitable for women".

There are many reasons for this, most of them associated with the social and educational pattern of woman's life. Professional work generally requires a long period of training, and often university graduation. As the number of women who go to college grows, so also does the number prepared and inclined to participate in professional work. But because most women do not expect to be employed full time throughout their lives, and because it is still difficult for women to establish themselves in fields that have been traditionally considered men's work, relatively few devote themselves to preparing for professions that require the longest period of training.

Higher Education of Women

In the last 30 years the proportion of Canadians attending university has grown a great deal, and the number of women students has followed this trend. A recent report on the subject by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics states that,

In 1953-54 they [women] totalled 21.9 per cent of the total (SIC) full-time undergraduate enrolment as opposed to 16.3 per cent in 1920-21, 23.5 in 1930-31, 23.3 in 1940-41 and 21.7 in 1950-51. The highest proportion of full-time women undergraduate students was in 1944-45 when they represented 28.7 per cent of the total full-time undergraduate enrolment.¹

In 1954 scarcely 17 per cent of the students in the graduate schools were women, a smaller proportion than in the twenties and thirties. The decline in proportion of women among graduate students has been continuous since 1930 except for a peak war year, 1943-44, when women accounted for 29 per cent of those doing graduate work—an all-time high.

In 1954 about 54 per cent of women undergraduates were pursuing general courses in Arts, Science, Letters and Philosophy, with roughly 46 per cent taking vocational training of one kind or another. A somewhat higher proportion of male undergraduates (about 57 per cent) were studying towards a vocation.

¹ *Survey of Higher Education, 1952-54*, DBS, Education Division, 1957, p. 15.

There were 18 areas of study represented by men and women working for either a degree or a diploma in some vocational field. In six of these areas the majority of the students were women. More than three-quarters of all women studying for a vocation were concentrated in these six fields. (See Table 24.)

Table 24

Women Undergraduates in Vocational Courses at Canadian Universities, 1954
Faculties with Women Students in Majority Shown Separately

Faculty	Number	Per cent
Household Science (degree or diploma).....	1,563	25.3
Education.....	1,472	23.8
Nursing (degree or post-grad. diploma).....	1,010	16.3
Occupational Therapy and Physiotherapy.....	389	6.3
Social Work.....	238	3.8
Library Science.....	94	1.5
Other Faculties.....	1,418	22.9
 Total vocational.....	6,184	99.9

SOURCE:

Survey of Higher Education, 1952-54, op. cit., Table 11.

This concentration of women in a few traditional fields is also apparent in the numbers who graduate from university courses generally regarded as preparation for a particular career. Three out of four women who completed professional or vocational courses at Canadian universities in 1954 took training in five of some 20 possible areas of study. (See Table 25.)

Table 25

Women Graduates of Vocational Courses at Canadian Universities, 1954

Faculty	Number	Per cent
Nursing (degree or diploma).....	385	25.9
Bachelor of Education or Pedagogy.....	278	18.7
Bachelor of Household Science.....	223	15.0
Social Work.....	149	10.0
Librarianship (degree or diploma).....	83	5.6
Other.....	371	24.9
 Total vocational.....	1,489	100.1

SOURCE:

Survey of Higher Education, 1952-54, op. cit., Table 15.

Participation in Professional Work

The area of study chosen at university naturally is an important factor in determining the kinds of professional jobs for which graduates will qualify. In the case of women there is a striking correlation between the types of professional jobs they hold and the fields in which they do undergraduate work. As Table 26 shows, at the time of the 1951 Census more than three-quarters of all professional women were either teachers or nurses. But comparisons with 1931 and 1941 indicate that although the percentages are not large, considerable numbers have branched out into new areas.

For instance, in 1951 the number of social workers and also of journalists, was more than three times as great as in 1931, and in both professions the proportion of women had doubled. In accounting and auditing, also, women had made considerable gains, with the pattern not unlike that in social work and journalism. Librarians too, had grown in both number and proportion of professional women.

Table 26

Women in the Professions in Canada

Showing 12 Professions Each Employing Over 1,000 Women in 1951,
With Comparisons for 1931 and 1941

Profession	1931		1941*		1951	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Teachers (including instructors 1951).....	64,950	55.1	64,484	50.8	75,796	45.7
Nurses, graduate.....	20,462	17.4	26,887	21.2	34,270	20.6
Nurses-in-training.....	11,436	9.7	11,822	9.3	15,581	9.4
Laboratory Technicians.....	—	—	—	—	5,447	3.3
Musicians and Music Teachers..	4,641	3.9	4,033	3.2	4,598	2.8
Social Welfare Workers n.e.s.....	792	0.7	1,253	1.0	2,525	1.5
Librarians.....	806	0.7	1,331	1.0	1,787	1.1
Authors, Editors, Journalists.....	464	0.4	714	0.6	1,621	1.0
Accountants and Auditors.....	571	0.5	2,992†	2.4	1,602	1.0
Religious Workers n.e.s.....	1,018	0.9	2,040	1.6	1,306	0.8
Artists and Art Teachers.....	709	0.6	956	0.8	1,225	0.7
Dietitians.....	—	—	—	—	1,100	0.7
Other.....	11,941	10.1	10,410	8.2	19,087	11.5
All Professions.....	117,790	100.0	126,922	100.1	165,945	100.1

NOTE: Not including Yukon and Northwest Territories.

* Including active service.

† Shown as clerical in 1941.

SOURCE:

Census of Canada, 1951 Vol. 4, Table 11 } —Gainfully occupied 14 and over.
1941 Vol. 7, Table 4 } —Gainfully occupied 14 and over.
1931, Vol. 7, Table 40 —Gainfully occupied 10 and over.

In addition to the better known professions for women listed above, growing numbers have established themselves in professional work once performed exclusively by men. Although the last census showed that women made up only 5 per cent of Canadian doctors, this was more than twice the proportion 20 years earlier. Women dentists doubled in number in that time. In 1951 more than 10 per cent of the chemists and metallurgists were women as against just 4 per cent in 1931.

The field for draughtsmen and designers expanded greatly in the two decades preceding the 1951 Census, and women made a much greater proportionate gain than did the men. Laboratory technicians, statisticians and actuaries appeared separately for the first time in the 1951 Census. Women made up 38 per cent, 17 per cent and 8 per cent respectively in these professions. There were three times as many women lawyers and notaries in 1951 as in 1931, but women still represented only 2 per cent of the legal profession.

For many years women have ably filled posts as professors and college principals (groups that are classed together in the census). Their numbers are growing, and in 1951, 15 per cent of posts of this kind were held by women. (See Chart VII, P. 29.)

Until 1951 no women were listed in the census as engineers or veterinary surgeons. However, in that year a substantial number appeared, 44 and 27 respectively.

More up-to-date information on the part that women are playing in science and engineering is contained in a report published in 1956 by the Economics and Research Branch of the Department of Labour. The report is based on the records of 830 women qualified as architects, scientists, engineers or in veterinary medicine, who completed questionnaires for the Technical Personnel Register of the Department. Only persons who received their Bachelor's Degrees prior to 1952 were included in the analysis.

As Table 27 shows, the women in science and engineering are heavily concentrated in a few specialties, with a relatively small number in various other fields.

Slightly more than 2 per cent of those registered are women, and they are concentrated in research and laboratory work rather than in positions with emphasis on mechanical or manual activity. The report states that ". . . . the proportion of women to total registration is 23 per cent in biology; 12 per cent in geography; 8 per cent in

mathematics; 4 per cent in chemistry; and 3 per cent in physics. In the remaining professions women account for less than 2 per cent of registrations".¹

Table 27

**Women in Science and Engineering Listed in Technical Personnel Register,
Department of Labour, Canada, 1956**

Professions with 20 or more shown Separately

Profession	Number	Per cent
Biology.....	344	41.4
Chemistry.....	273	32.9
Physics.....	48	5.8
Agriculture.....	38	4.6
Mathematics.....	32	3.9
Architecture.....	20	2.4
Other.....	75	9.0
Total.....	830	100.0

SOURCE:

Report on Women in Science and Engineering, Department of Labour, Economics and Research Branch, September 1956, Table 1.

Women scientists and engineers are mainly in research work, inspection and laboratory services and to a lesser extent in teaching. These three functions together accounted for 87 per cent of the women registered in these professions; and in biology and chemistry, where women are most numerous, 97 and 91 per cent respectively are engaged in these functions.

In spite of the fact that as has been shown above, the proportion of women among those doing graduate work at the universities is not high, the academic level of those registered with the Technical Personnel Register is on the average higher than that of the men. This is partly due to the fact that the median age of the women listed is only 31, but for the men it is 39. It is in fairly recent years that heavier emphasis has been placed on graduate work in these fields. Another factor is that a high proportion of the men and very few women are engineers, a specialty in which graduate work is less common than in many of the scientific professions. It may also be that women who are pioneering in new fields need outstanding academic equipment if they are to compete in what is generally regarded as a man's world.

¹ *Report on Women in Science and Engineering*, *op. cit.*, p. 2.

IV

Women's Earnings

There has been an upward trend in wages of Canadian workers during the last few years, and women as well as men have benefited. (See Table 28.)

Table 28

Average Index of Wage Rates, All Industries, Canada, October 1, 1949-1956

1949=100.0

<i>Year</i>	<i>Index of Average Wage Rates</i>
1949.....	100.0
1950.....	105.5
1951.....	119.1
1952.....	127.7
1953.....	133.6
1954.....	137.9
1955.....	141.7
1956.....	148.7

SOURCE:

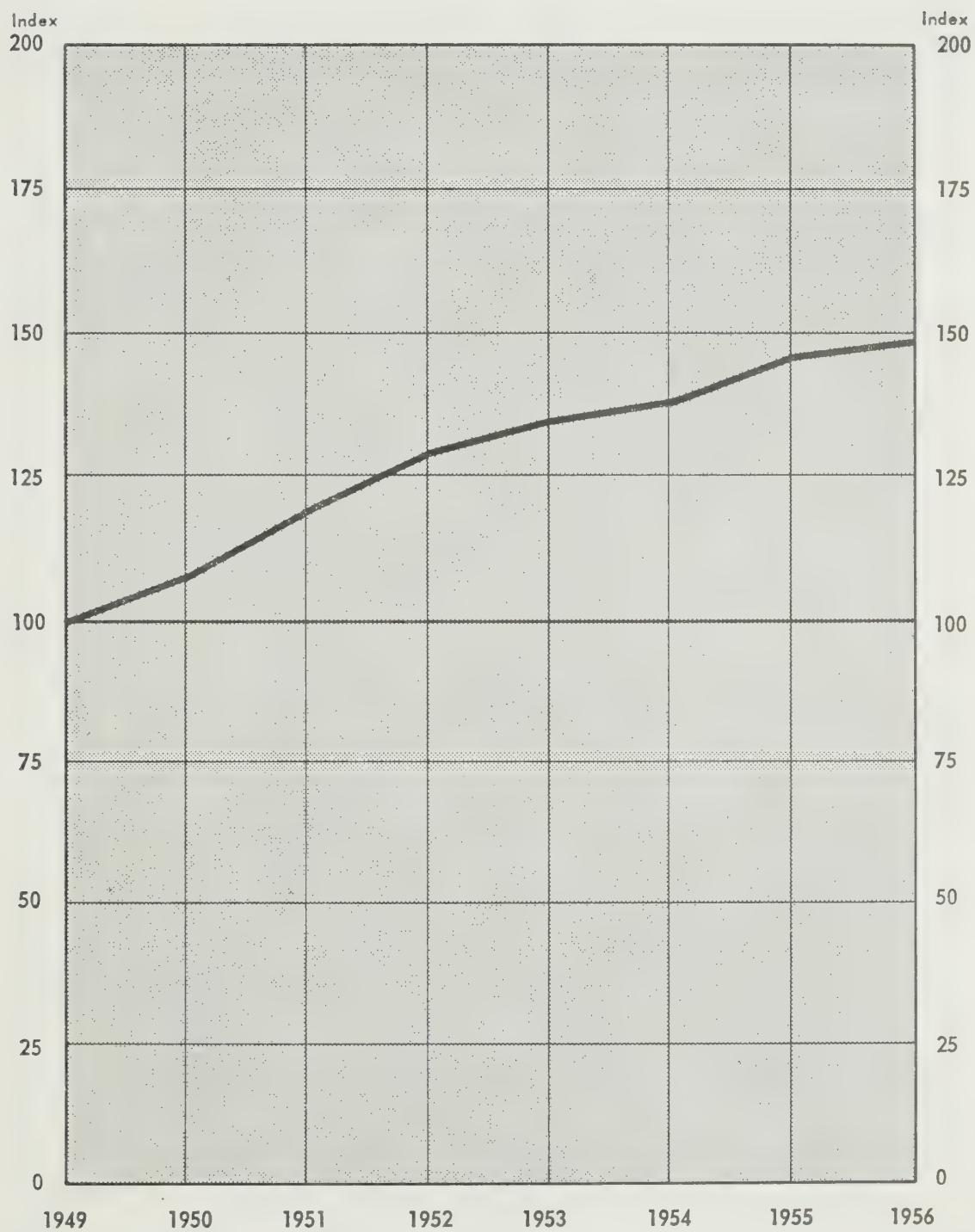
Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada, Department of Labour, Economics and Research Branch: 1956, Table A; 1953, Table 1.

Table 28 may be used as a rough guide in relating the information that follows concerning wages of women and men in other years to the situation today.

Now as in the past, working women tend to have lower incomes than men. (See Table 29.) Not only are women's wages¹, on the whole, lower than those of the men, but their actual earnings¹ are also less. The reasons for this will be discussed below.

¹ *Earnings* represent gross remuneration including time, piece-work and commission earnings, regularly-paid incentive, cost-of-living, and other bonuses, overtime earnings, and payments to persons absent without pay. *Wage or salary rates* are rates paid to fully qualified workers for the regular hours on the job.

GENERAL AVERAGE INDEX OF WAGE RATES, CANADA
 OCTOBER 1, 1949-1956
 1949 = 100



SOURCE: Table 28, p. 38. See footnote to table.

Table 29

Percentage Distribution of Individuals (Non-Farm) Whose Major Source of Income is Wages and Salaries, by Income and Sex, Canada, 1954

Annual Income	Women	Men
\$	%	%
Under 1,000.....	36.7	11.4
1,000 to 1,999.....	35.8	15.5
2,000 to 2,999.....	20.8	24.3
3,000 to 3,999.....	5.2	26.3
4,000 plus.....	1.5	22.5
Total.....	100.0	100.0

SOURCE: *Distribution of Non-Farm Incomes in Canada by Size, 1954*, DBS, Research and Development Division, Table 22.

Even women who work the full year average only slightly more than half the income reported by full-time male employees (Table 30).

Table 30

Average Annual Income of Women and Men Employees by Weeks Employed, Canada, 1954

Weeks Employed‡	Average Annual Income	
	Women	Men
	\$	\$
50-52.....	1,984	3,719
40-49.....	1,639	3,032
30-39.....	1,128	2,077
20-29.....	910	1,465
10-19.....	485	896
9 and under.....	223	695

‡ These are weeks in either full-time or part-time employment. Averages refer to total income from all sources; average income from employment would be somewhat lower.

SOURCE: *Distribution of Non-Farm Incomes in Canada by Size, 1954*, op. cit., Table 19.

In the manufacturing industry for instance the average weekly earnings of both wage-earners and salaried workers are much higher for men than for women. (Table 31.)

In the 1956 survey week more than half of the women factory workers earned less than \$40¹ but only 7 per cent of the men were in such a low income group. On the other hand 70 per cent of the men but only 10 per cent of the women were paid \$60 or more that week.

This great difference in earnings between men and women factory workers is explained to a considerable extent by the high proportion

¹ *Earnings and Hours of Work in Manufacturing*, op. cit., 1956, Table 7.

Table 31

**Average Weekly Earnings of Women and Men in Manufacturing, Canada,
Week Ending October 31, 1954, 1955 and 1956**

Year	Wage-Earners		Salary Earners	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
1954.....	\$ 35.90	\$ 63.98	\$ 45.00	\$ 90.99
1955.....	37.52	66.86	47.02	93.50
1956.....	39.29	70.67	49.31	99.05

SOURCE: *Earnings and Hours of Work in Manufacturing, op. cit.*, 1956, Tables 1, 2.

of men—nearly 60 per cent—in the heavier industries where pay is generally higher. Eighty per cent of the women were in lighter manufacturing, i.e. they were making non-durable consumer goods.

The higher wages paid in the durable goods industries affect women as well as men. Although women make up a much smaller proportion of the workers in the heavy industries than in industries producing lighter consumer goods, those women who do work in the durable goods industries tend to be paid more than other women working in factories. It seems likely that in addition to the fact that work may be somewhat heavier in these plants women benefit from the efforts of the predominantly male unions to raise the pay of all workers. It is also noticeable that men working in light manufacturing tend to have lower earnings than men in the heavy industries.

In the case of salaried employees too, a much higher proportion of men than of women in the manufacturing industry are in the high income group. For example, in the survey week in October 1956, more than half of the salaried men but only 4 per cent of the women on salary received \$80 or more. On the other hand more than half of the women and only 8 per cent of the men got less than \$50 in the week. This is largely explained by the fact that women are concentrated in the lower-paid clerical jobs. A very high percentage of the managers and professional workers in the industry are men.

That earnings of men are consistently higher than those of women is further illustrated by recent information concerning persons covered by the Unemployment Insurance Act (Table 32). Since about 80 per cent of paid workers came under the Act in 1954, these data appear to be fairly representative of the wage-earning population. They show that although the proportion of both men and women in the lowest income groups has dropped a good deal since 1944, and for both sexes the highest income group has grown steadily, men continue to be higher

paid on the whole than women. On the other hand women have an advantage over men in that they are employed to a considerably greater extent in the more stable industries that are not as sensitive as some others to economic fluctuations.

Table 32

**Percentage Distribution of Persons Covered by the Unemployment Insurance Act, by Average Weekly Earnings, by Sex, Years Ending
March 31, 1944, 1949, 1954**

(Estimates in 1,000's based on 5 per cent sample)

Average Weekly Earnings	1944		1949		Average Weekly Earnings	1954	
	Women	Men	Women	Men		Women	Men
\$	%	%	%	%	\$	%	%
Less than 20.....	60.5	12.6	29.7	4.4	Less than 27.....	28.3	4.0
20-25.99.....	24.9	16.4	32.3	7.0	27-33.99.....	24.0	5.1
26 plus.....	14.6	71.0	38.0	88.5	34 plus.....	47.7	91.0
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9	Total.....	100.0	100.1

NOTE: Includes new entrants and renewals.

SOURCE:

Employment Under the Unemployment Insurance Act year ended March 31, 1954,
DBS Reference Paper No. 61—Part II, Table 12.

The reasons why women generally earn less than men are to a considerable extent related to the role of women in society. Whereas most men spend virtually their entire adult lives working to support themselves and their families, the average woman who seeks employment does so on an intermittent basis or in conjunction with her family and household responsibilities. The result is that not only is she less likely to work as many hours in a day, week or year as the average man, but she is not as likely either to acquire skills that are only developed by long experience. Unskilled workers of both sexes tend to be concentrated in low-paid jobs. A high proportion of women workers are engaged in unskilled or semi-skilled work—the kinds of jobs that can be left and taken up again as other responsibilities permit.

In the first phase of adulthood many young women undertake some gainful work; more than a third of the girls and women between 14 and 25 are now in the labour force. When a woman marries, as the great majority do, she may resign from her job, either at once or when she has children. Later, as the children grow older and family responsibilities may lessen, more and more married women return to employment while continuing to look after their homes. Some women,

particularly those who do not marry or married women who have no children, are employed throughout their lives. There is a growing tendency for gainful work to occupy a greater part in the lives of women of all ages.

It is clear however, that the pattern of gainful employment is not nearly as predictable for women as it is for men, and this, of course, affects the position of women in the labour market.¹

In the first place, the attitude of women towards training for employment tends to be different from that of men. With some important exceptions, women are less likely than men to take the training necessary to fit them for highly skilled work, especially when several years of preparation are required. Decisions concerning education and training are likely to be influenced by the anticipated role of housewife and mother. (See Tables 24 and 25.)

A lack of enthusiasm often shown by women for union organization or long-range employee benefit programs is undoubtedly related in many cases to their uncertain attachment to the labour force.

While both men and women leave jobs for many of the same reasons, women may also withdraw from the labour market because of marriage or family responsibilities. This is not true of all women, but it is the accepted pattern of a woman's life. If she wishes to remain at work outside her home, there are seldom adequate services available to enable her to do so. Therefore, when continuity of service is required, employers often prefer men; for similar reasons women's opportunities of promotion are apt to be limited.

Again, many women, especially when married, tend to choose jobs where the hours of work do not interfere too much with their household duties, and where responsibilities are not too great. This is one reason why a much higher proportion of women than of men work a short week. (See for example comparative information in Table 62.) Since duties connected with home and family generally fall most heavily on the wife, married women are likely to perform a dual role, and their absentee rates are therefore higher. Many of them work only part time or in seasonal jobs where, even if they are paid at the same rate as men, their monthly or annual earnings tend to be less.

Then, too, married women frequently work to supplement their husbands' incomes rather than to provide an income sufficient to support a family. As a result they may be willing to accept work at

¹ See "The Working Life of Women", *The Labour Gazette*, September 1957, p. 1060.

comparatively low rates, thus tending to bring down the standards of remuneration for all women. The woman who re-enters employment after a long absence is handicapped also, because her work in the home will probably not have added to her training and experience for an occupation outside.

Another factor in the economic status of the married woman worker is her limited mobility. Since it is usually the husband's opportunity of employment rather than the wife's that determines the choice of a place to live, the married woman may be unable to find the type of work best suited to her abilities and training and may take a less well-paid job than she might otherwise hold. Moreover, even if she has a good position, she is unlikely to be able to accept promotion that would involve moving to another part of the country.

Finally, the number of women available in relation to job openings tends to be higher than in the case of men. There are usually many women who are prepared to enter the labour force only if jobs that will fit in with their other responsibilities, and not necessarily high paying ones, become available. This large potential supply of women workers and the relative ease with which one can be substituted for another in the many semi-skilled jobs they hold have important bearings on women's wages. An increasing demand for workers in occupations employing large numbers of women does not tend to push wages up to the same extent as in predominantly male occupations where the actual supply of workers is usually limited.

One general effect of these differences between men and women workers is that women as a whole tend to be found in lower paid jobs despite the fact that there are cases, an increasing number of them, where well trained women do hold high-paying and responsible positions.

The importance of these factors varies with changes in economic developments, in working arrangements and facilities and in education. The difference between earnings of men and women is greatest in manual work, but it is also considerable in what are commonly called the white collar occupations. There is evidence that in these kinds of employment the actual jobs done by men and by women are seldom the same.

In professional and technical work there is less difference in earnings of men and women. In many senior posts in government, business and the professions pay is for the job regardless of sex.

In Canada, over the past 50 years, important changes have taken place in attitudes towards women's work and also in the amount of time

and effort required to perform household tasks. As women have gained political equality with men support has grown for raising their economic status as well. The idea of equal pay for equal work appeals to the sense of justice of men as well as women. These various changes have made it easier for women to hold jobs on the same basis as men. Nevertheless, the roles of men and women in society continue to influence their relative positions in the labour market, their working life, and thus, their earnings.

More than three-quarters of all women wage-earners are either non-professional white collar workers, personal service workers or in factory jobs. Information is available to throw light on the earnings of these workers, and it will be examined.

Although professional women make up only about 15 per cent of women wage-earners, they are of special interest and importance. Myrdal and Klein have advanced the following reasons for devoting more attention to professional women than the numbers warrant:

We have done so for a variety of reasons. One is simply that problems of choice arise only where there is at least some freedom to choose. The woman who has to go to work in order to support her family need not be troubled overmuch about the psychological effects her absence from home may have on her children. She knows that if she did not earn the money she needs to feed them, the children would go hungry. There is no doubt which is the lesser evil of the two.

Moreover, the educated elite is more articulate and hence its problems are more widely discussed. This minority creates the patterns which are later adopted by the community as a whole. By their successes and failures the outcome of women's emancipation will be judged, and the question of 'how much equality' decided.¹

The earnings of the two largest groups of professional women (teachers and nurses) are considered, as well as earnings of social workers. Social work is an important profession for women, and a recent survey is the source of authentic information concerning it.

White-Collar Workers (Non-Professional)

Clerical

In 1951 more than one quarter of all working women were in clerical jobs; these women made up 57 per cent of all clerical workers.

Data concerning average weekly earnings of office workers in factories in October 1951, with comparable data for 1954 are shown in Table 33.

¹ *Women's Two Roles*, Alva Myrdal and Viola Klein, London, 1956, p. 151.

Table 33

Average Weekly Earnings of Office Workers in Manufacturing, by Sex, Canada,
Weeks Ending October 31, 1951 and 1954

Year	Women	Men
	\$	\$
1951.....	37.77	60.68
1954.....	44.16	70.94

SOURCE:

Earnings and Hours of Work in Manufacturing, 1954, DBS, Labour and Prices Division, 1956, Table F.

Of all women wage-earners in clerical jobs, about 42 per cent are stenographers and typists, 37 per cent office clerks and 17 per cent bookkeepers and cashiers; these three groups account for 95 per cent of the clerical workers. More than half of the remaining 5 per cent are office appliance operators.

Keeping in mind the rise in wages since 1951 (See Table 28), Table 34 gives some indication of the differences in levels of earnings among the three leading clerical occupations of women.

Table 34

Women Wage-Earners in Clerical Occupations by Earnings, Canada,
Year Ending June 1, 1951

Earnings (\$)	Stenographers & Typists		Office Clerks		Bookkeepers & Cashiers		All Office Workers	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 1,000 ..	19,449	14.6	27,159	23.1	11,095	20.6	60,652	18.9
1,000 to 1,499 ...	33,145	24.9	35,861	30.6	15,727	29.2	89,180	27.9
1,500 to 1,999 ...	47,443	35.7	34,166	29.1	16,821	31.2	103,679	32.4
2,000 to 2,999 ..	30,244	22.7	17,911	15.3	9,249	17.2	60,196	18.8
3,000 plus	1,528	1.2	801	0.7	387	0.7	2,776	0.9
Unknown	1,251	0.9	1,482	1.3	590	1.1	3,459	1.1
Total	133,060	100.0	117,380	100.1	53,869	100.0	319,852	100.0

SOURCE:

Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. 5, Table 21.

Of women engaged in these three kinds of work the highest paid on the whole are stenographers and typists, with office clerks earning least.

One of the main factors influencing the earnings of these workers appears to be their age distribution. Among both office clerks and bookkeepers and cashiers there is a higher proportion than among stenographers and typists in the "45 and over" age group, which is

likely to include more low-income earners. Also, office clerks have the highest proportion of teen-agers whose lack of experience would tend to reduce their earnings.

Salary rates shown below are for men and women working in these three clerical occupations in manufacturing establishments. As explained above, salary rates are not the same as earnings, but differences between the sexes and among different kinds of work show up in both types of data.

Stenographers and Typists

Nearly all stenographers and typists are women, and in 1951 one out of eight women wage-earners was either a stenographer or a typist.

Because of their added skill, stenographers generally start at higher rates than typists, and senior stenographers are usually paid at a higher

Table 35

Average Weekly Salary Rates for Women Stenographers and Typists in Manufacturing, Specified Canadian Cities, October 1956

City	Private Secretary	Average Weekly Salary Rates (\$)			
		Stenographer		Typist	
		Senior	Junior	Senior	Junior
Atlantic Provinces					
St. John's.....	—	48.77	—	—	32.26
Halifax.....	50.75	43.79	37.99	—	38.81
Saint John.....	53.58	47.35	33.90	48.55	—
Quebec					
Montreal.....	67.29	56.66	48.44	48.55	41.29
Quebec City.....	62.63	52.05	37.34	42.05	33.47
Shawinigan Falls.....	—	62.21	50.48	48.45	36.75
Trois Rivieres.....	66.13	54.14	39.54	41.02	—
Ontario					
Toronto.....	65.02	56.16	47.61	48.38	41.72
Hamilton.....	65.23	55.12	45.58	48.11	40.23
Ottawa.....	65.17	50.77	44.38	46.03	41.12
Windsor.....	64.81	57.01	51.73	54.76	49.03
London.....	61.93	49.66	45.36	45.46	36.81
Prairie Provinces					
Winnipeg.....	54.06	47.81	38.20	40.93	35.03
Edmonton.....	58.78	50.98	43.88	45.59	39.89
Regina.....	56.32	50.20	43.01	46.58	39.23
British Columbia					
Vancouver.....	62.39	51.95	46.43	45.02	40.34
Victoria.....	56.50	48.74	40.96	42.07	36.98

SOURCE:

Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada, op. cit., 1956, Tables 90, 91.

rate than senior typists. Private secretaries, who have added responsibilities, are naturally the highest paid.

Salaries of these workers vary a good deal in different parts of the country, depending on the demand for their services and other factors. As Table 35 shows, the rates are generally highest in the industrialized central provinces and lowest in the Atlantic region.

Office Clerks

In 1951, 10 per cent of the women in the labour force were office clerks and more than 40 per cent of the office clerks were women.

Although there are many exceptions, office clerks at the junior level appear to be somewhat lower paid than stenographers. Rates for

Table 36

**Average Weekly Salary Rates for Women Office Clerks in Manufacturing,
Specified Canadian Cities, October 1956**

City	Average Weekly Salary Rates (\$)		
	Senior	Intermediate	Junior
Atlantic Provinces			
St. John's.....	—	37.71	29.00
Halifax.....	44.71	37.42	35.06
Saint John.....	—	38.97	34.35
Quebec			
Montreal.....	62.58	49.69	38.36
Quebec City.....	47.89	35.23	30.97
Shawinigan Falls.....	—	—	35.21
Trois Rivieres.....	—	38.01	31.05
Ontario			
Toronto.....	60.96	51.41	42.35
Hamilton.....	56.23	47.06	40.11
Ottawa.....	52.36	47.33	38.16
Windsor.....	58.52	56.48	48.67
London.....	55.02	44.87	34.45
Prairie Provinces			
Winnipeg.....	47.04	40.03	33.52
Edmonton.....	53.29	46.80	41.06
Regina.....	49.97	42.25	—
British Columbia			
Vancouver.....	56.15	45.46	37.38
Victoria.....	49.27	41.74	35.66

SOURCE:

Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada, op. cit., 1956, Tables 90, 91.

senior office clerks compare favourably with those for senior stenographers, although they lag well behind rates for private secretaries.

As in the case of stenographers and typists, the highest wage rates are in the central provinces, with lower rates in the Atlantic centres. (See Table 36.)

Bookkeepers and Cashiers

In 1951 about 5 per cent of all women workers were bookkeepers and cashiers, a census classification that includes a wide variety of individual occupations from accounting clerks and general bookkeepers

Table 37

Average Weekly Salary Rates for Women Bookkeepers and Cost Accounting Clerks in Manufacturing, Specified Canadian Cities, October 1956

City	Average Weekly Salary Rates (\$)		
	Bookkeepers		Cost Accounting Clerks
	Senior	Junior	
Atlantic Provinces			
St. John's.....	51.78	—	—
Halifax.....	45.23	38.39	—
Saint John.....	51.09	38.28	—
Quebec			
Montreal.....	61.51	46.84	50.68
Quebec City.....	43.71	34.39	—
Shawinigan Falls.....	—	—	—
Trois Rivieres.....	—	—	—
Ontario			
Toronto.....	60.82	51.38	51.65
Hamilton.....	58.50	49.77	50.48
Ottawa.....	57.99	40.40	50.48
Windsor.....	65.31	52.27	57.19
London.....	52.47	41.24	44.32
Prairie Provinces			
Winnipeg.....	55.15	41.89	—
Edmonton.....	60.11	46.07	52.32
Regina.....	52.69	42.70	—
British Columbia			
Vancouver.....	58.93	50.19	48.45
Victoria.....	50.51	38.26	—

SOURCE:

Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada, op. cit., 1956, Tables 90, 91.

to tube operators and carrier girls in the retail trade. Women constituted roughly 60 per cent of the entire group. Table 37 shows salary rates for two important occupations in this class.

The highest rates for women bookkeepers are in Windsor, Ontario. Pay is relatively high throughout Ontario, but there is insufficient information to generalize about Quebec. Wage rates are known for only two cities in Quebec. Montreal compares favourably with other centres, but Quebec City bookkeepers are the lowest paid of all.

Rates for women cost accounting clerks are reported in few centres outside Ontario. Perhaps it is not as common in some areas as in others for women to follow this occupation. However, of all the cities for which information is available, Windsor again has the highest average rates of pay.

Communications

Telephone Operators

Telephone operators accounted for 95 per cent of all women in Communications occupations at the time of the 1951 Census. In the year preceding the Census, as Table 38 shows, more than half of them earned less than \$1,500.

Table 38

Women Telephone Operators by Earnings, Canada, Year Ending June 1, 1951

<i>Earnings (\$)</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Less than 1,000.....	7,996	27.0
1,000 to 1,499.....	9,287	31.4
1,500 to 1,999.....	8,220	27.8
2,000 to 2,999.....	3,521	11.9
3,000 plus.....	222	0.8
Unknown.....	321	1.1
 Total.....	29,567	100.0

SOURCE:

Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. 5, Table 21.

That there has been an increase in rates of pay since that time, which would be reflected also in earnings, can be gathered from Table 39. As is the case for clerical workers, telephone operators are highest paid in central Canada, particularly in Windsor, Ontario. The average rate is lowest in St. John's, Newfoundland.

Table 39

Average Weekly Salary Rates for Women Telephone Operators in Manufacturing, Specified Canadian Cities, October 1956

<i>City</i>	<i>Average Weekly Salary Rates (\$)</i>
Atlantic Provinces	
St. John's.....	31.70
Halifax.....	37.93
Saint John.....	35.68
Quebec	
Montreal.....	47.46
Quebec City.....	38.09
Shawinigan Falls.....	—
Trois Rivieres.....	50.27
Ontario	
Toronto.....	48.59
Hamilton.....	46.42
Ottawa.....	44.67
Windsor.....	51.40
London.....	42.86
Prairie Provinces	
Winnipeg.....	38.15
Edmonton.....	43.52
Regina.....	—
British Columbia	
Vancouver.....	44.87
Victoria.....	40.99

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada, op. cit.*, 1956, Tables 90, 91.

Commercial

Sales Clerks

In 1951, about four out of five women in commercial occupations were sales clerks; women represented more than half of the sales force.

Table 40

Women Sales Clerks by Earnings, Canada, Year Ending June 1, 1951

<i>Earnings (\$)</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Less than 1,000.....	45,073	51.5
1,000 to 1,499.....	28,142	32.1
1,500 to 1,999.....	10,336	11.8
2,000 to 2,999.....	2,198	2.5
3,000 plus.....	94	0.1
Unknown.....	1,710	2.0
Total.....	87,553	100.0

SOURCE: *Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. 5, Table 21.*

Well over half of these women earned less than \$1,000 in the year preceding the Census. (See Table 40.) It should be pointed out that one in four worked less than 30 weeks in that year, and in addition a considerable number would work part time the year round. Further, many women are counter clerks, and there is a high proportion of young and inexperienced girls among them.

As Table 41 shows, pay is generally higher for sales clerks working on commission than for those employed on a time basis. A high proportion of the latter are counter clerks, whereas experienced sales people predominate among those selling on commission.

Table 41
**Average Weekly Salary Rates for Women Retail Clerks,
Specified Canadian Cities, October 1956**

<i>City</i>	<i>Time Work</i>	<i>Commission</i>
Atlantic Provinces	\$	\$
St. John's.....	25.55	—
Halifax.....	29.71	38.08
Saint John.....	25.48	29.13
Quebec		
Montreal.....	33.08	43.77
Quebec City.....	27.23	39.72
Ontario		
Toronto.....	34.88	43.30
Hamilton.....	31.88	44.25
Ottawa.....	29.81	33.20
Windsor.....	29.23	—
London.....	30.39	40.13
Prairie Provinces		
Winnipeg.....	37.17	37.27
Edmonton.....	36.99	38.48
Regina.....	33.96	39.12
British Columbia		
Vancouver.....	41.10	41.07
Victoria.....	38.30	47.43

NOTE: Grocery, meat and produce stores not included.

SOURCE:

Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada, op. cit., 1956, Table 81.

Personal Service Workers

Personal service occupations include many jobs that are closely related to work done in the home, and these have been traditionally held by women. The 1951 Census listed about one woman worker in five under this classification, and two-thirds of those doing this work were women.

Table 42

Women Wage-earners in Leading Personal Service Occupations By Earnings, Canada, Year Ending June 1, 1951

Occupation	Earnings (\$)						All Earnings Groups			
	Less than 500		500-999		1,000-1,499		1,500 plus		Unknown	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Hotel, Cafe & Private Household Workers	44,554	50.9	26,876	30.7	8,693	9.9	2,053	2.4	5,300	6.1
Waitresses	13,263	33.8	14,043	35.8	8,931	22.7	2,388	6.1	660	1.7
Housekeepers & Matrons	12,230	47.5	6,723	26.1	2,022	7.8	1,232	4.8	3,559	13.8
Practical Nurses	5,175	29.1	4,703	26.5	4,672	26.3	2,130	12.0	1,089	6.1
Laundresses, Cleaners & Dyers ..	3,932	23.9	4,761	28.9	5,645	34.3	1,929	11.7	189	1.2
Cooks	5,331	35.3	4,222	28.0	3,342	22.1	1,758	11.6	452	3.0
Charworkers & Cleaners	3,370	33.0	4,239	41.5	1,584	15.5	422	4.1	602	5.9
Barbers, Hair-dressers & Manicurists	1,040	19.7	1,057	20.0	1,689	31.9	1,398	26.4	107	2.0
All Personal Service Occupations	91,455	40.6	68,606	30.5	38,302	17.0	14,435	6.4	12,206	5.4
									5,291	100.0
									225,004	99.9

SOURCE:

Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. 5, Table 21.

The low earnings of personal service workers in 1951 (Table 42) should be read with the following qualifications in mind: not only has this group shared in the general rise in wages since 1951, but the personal service classification includes a large number of household workers and waitresses who receive board, and frequently room too, as part payment for their services. It will be seen that the smallest proportions earning under \$500 are in the two categories where it is unlikely that living accommodation or meals would be provided. These are also among the categories with a relatively high proportion earning upwards of \$1,500. Then there is always a large number of part-time workers among those in personal service jobs.

The Dominion Bureau of Statistics states that in 1951 about one-third of the cooks, 10 per cent of the housekeepers and matrons and 14 per cent of the laundresses, cleaners and dyers earning less than \$500 reported no cash earnings during the census year.

Hotel, Cafe and Private Household Workers

Rates paid to service workers employed in hotels are shown in Table 43. Unlike the census information in Table 42, rates in Table 43 include the value of meals where they are provided. Rates are generally higher in the larger hotels.

Table 43

Average Monthly Salary Rates for Women in Specified Service Occupations in Hotels, Canada, October 1956

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Average Monthly Salary Rates (\$)</i>	
	<i>Fewer than 200 Employees</i>	<i>200 Employees or more</i>
Housekeeper.....	170.87	200.64
Chambermaid.....	129.27	143.47
Dishwasher.....	122.51	139.71
Elevator Operator.....	136.03	136.60

NOTE: Railway hotels excluded.

SOURCE:

Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada, op. cit., 1956, Tables 85, 86.

For the smaller hotels data are broken down by regions (Table 44). As for other occupations, rates in the Atlantic provinces are well below those in other parts of Canada. Rates are highest in British Columbia.

Table 44

Average Monthly Salary Rates for Women in Specified Service Occupations in Hotels Employing Fewer Than 200, Canada and Regions, October 1956

Region	Average Monthly Salary Rates (\$)			
	Housekeeper	Chambermaid	Dishwasher	Elevator Operator
Atlantic Provinces.....	141.22	86.61	96.91	77.67
Quebec.....	170.98	105.12	109.26	—
Ontario.....	169.43	133.09	129.65	141.24
Prairie Provinces.....	177.43	138.36	126.40	143.19
British Columbia.....	181.45	153.61	145.63	159.66
Canada.....	170.87	129.27	122.51	136.03

NOTE: Railway hotels excluded.

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada, op. cit., 1956*, Table 86.

Factory Workers

More than half of all women working in factories in 1951 were in some kind of work with textiles. Other leading occupational groups were Metal Products, Food and Beverages and Leather Products. At that time, as Table 45 shows, roughly two-thirds of Canadian women factory workers earned under \$1,500 in a year; less than 10 per cent earned \$2,000 or over.

Of the four occupational groups shown, metal workers were best paid. In both Food and Beverages and Leather Products there was a high proportion in the lowest income groups. The somewhat better showing for textile workers is due in part to inclusion of workers in

Table 45

**Women Wage-earners in Manufacturing Occupations By Earnings
Canada, Year Ending June 1, 1951**

Earnings (\$)	Textiles*	Metal	Food and	Leather	All Manu-
		Products	Beverages	Products	facturing
Less than 1,000.....	35.8	19.1	53.5	41.1	32.8
1,000 to 1,499.....	35.1	24.7	24.3	37.9	32.8
1,500 to 1,999.....	21.6	32.3	15.8	16.7	23.9
2,000 to 2,999.....	6.2	22.7	4.2	3.4	9.2
3,000 plus.....	0.2	0.4	0.0+	0.1	0.3
Unknown.....	1.0	0.8	2.1	0.8	1.0
All earnings groups.....	99.9	100.0	99.9	100.0	100.0

* Includes textile goods and wearing apparel.

SOURCE: *Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. 5, Table 21*.

textile products other than clothing who, as Table 46 shows, are better paid than the clothing workers. Rates vary, of course, in different parts of Canada.

More up-to-date information concerning earnings of women working in factories with 15 or more employees is shown in Table 46. This confirms the fact that workers in the Electrical Apparatus and Supplies Industry who make up a high proportion of women metal workers, are the highest paid.

Table 46

Average Weekly and Hourly Earnings of Women Wage-earners in Manufacturing Industries Employing Over 70 Per cent of Women Factory Workers, Canada, October 1956

Industry	Average Earnings (\$)	
	Weekly	Hourly
Clothing (textile and fur).....	35.00	.90
Textile Products (except clothing).....	39.53	.98
Food and Beverages.....	36.12	.94
Electrical Apparatus and Supplies.....	49.89	1.27
Leather Products.....	33.06	.85

SOURCE: *Earnings and Hours of Work in Manufacturing, op. cit.*, October 1956, preliminary report, Table 1.

Textile Workers

Roughly half of all women making clothing and textiles are sewing machine operators, and their wage rates in October 1956 are shown in Table 47.

Table 47

Average Hourly Wage Rates and Straight-time Earnings of Women Sewing Machine Operators, Canada, October 1956

Industry	Average Wage Rate (time work)	Average Straight-time Earnings (piece or incentive)	
		\$	\$
Men's and Boys' Suits and Overcoats.....	.94	1.20	
Men's Fine Shirts.....	.65	.81	
Work Clothing and Sportswear.....	.72	.97	
Women's and Misses' Coats and Suits.....	1.28	1.47	
Women's and Misses' Dresses.....	.94	1.21	
Hosiery and Knit Goods.....	.76	.91	
Foundation Garments.....	.79	.96	
Fur Goods.....	1.35	—	

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada, op. cit.*, 1956, Tables 27-34.

Food and Beverages

Women working in this industry are mainly in food production. Wage rates for specified occupations within the industry are shown in Table 48.

Table 48

Average Hourly Wage Rates and Straight-time Earnings of Women in Specified Occupations in Manufacture of Food and Beverages, Canada, October 1956

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Industry</i>	<i>Average Wage Rate (time work)</i>	<i>Average Straight- time Earnings (piece or incentive)</i>
Bacon Wrapper and Packer	Slaughtering and Meatpacking	\$ 1.26	\$ 1.48
Cutter, Peeler, Pitter (hand)	Canned and Preserved Fruits and Vegetables	.74	.91
General Helper	Biscuits and Crackers	1.03	—
Cake Icer	Bread and Other Bakery Products	.87	—
Chocolate Dipper	Confectionery	.86	.86

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada, op. cit., 1956*, Tables 7, 10, 12, 13, 16.

Metal Products

The great majority of women making metal products are producing electrical apparatus and supplies. Table 49 shows wage rates for assemblers in this industrial group.

Table 49

Average Hourly Wage Rates and Straight-time Earnings of Women Assemblers, Electrical Apparatus and Supplies, Canada, October 1956

<i>Industry</i>	<i>Average Wage Rate (time work)</i>	<i>Average Straight- time Earnings (piece or incentive)</i>
Radio, Television and Other Electronic Equipment....	\$ 1.11	\$ 1.31
Refrigerators, Vacuum Cleaners and Miscellaneous Electrical Products.....	1.07	1.36

SOURCE: *Wages Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada, op. cit., 1956*, Tables 64, 65.

Leather Products

Women in the leather products industry are mainly engaged in making boots and shoes. Table 50 shows the rates paid in selected occupations in this industry.

Table 50

Average Hourly Wage Rates and Straight-time Earnings of Women in Specified Occupations, Boot and Shoe Manufacturing, Canada, October 1956

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Average Wage Rate (time work)</i>	<i>Average Straight- time Earnings (piece or incentive)</i>
Binding Stitcher.....	.85	1.03
Fancy Stitcher.....	.86	1.04
Lining Maker.....	.77	1.10
Repairer.....	.80	1.04
Top Stitcher.....	.84	1.06
Vamp Stitcher.....	.87	1.07

SOURCE: *Wage Rates and Hours of Labour in Canada, op. cit.*, 1956, Table 22.

Professional Women

It has been shown in Chapter III that three-quarters of the professional women in Canada are either teachers or nurses. Information that follows throws light on the earnings of women in these professions. Because authoritative data are available from a special survey, social work—a profession in which many women find employment, and in which a high proportion of the employees are women—is also discussed.

As for other workers, salaries of professional women have risen a good deal since 1951. However, because the census is the only source of complete and comparable information, Table 51 is of value to show the comparison of levels of earnings in the three professions.

The census definition of school teacher is somewhat wider than would be used to compile the data on teachers' salaries. In addition to public school teachers it includes among others, teachers in business colleges and Bible schools, nursery schools and kindergartens. The census definition of social welfare worker also covers a number of related occupations such as sports directors and playground workers, which would not be included in the Survey of Welfare Positions from which the detailed information on salaries in social work is taken. The data for that survey are as of October 1, 1951, just four months after the census was taken.

Table 51 shows that of the three professions the social workers tended to be highest paid. This is related to the fact that more than

60 per cent of them had at least 13 years' schooling. In the other two professions roughly half had completed 13 years or more at school.

There was a higher proportion of teachers than of social workers or nurses in the "under \$1,000" earnings group. On the other hand, teachers were well ahead of the nurses and approached the social workers in proportion earning \$3,000 or more.

These differences between earnings in the three professions are associated also with the age distribution. Eight per cent of the teachers were under 20 as against 3 per cent of the social workers and a negligible number of nurses. No doubt many of the lowest paid teachers were teen-agers, some of them teaching on a temporary permit.

One factor that tends to depress the apparent earnings of nurses in relation to the other groups is that some receive room and board in addition to cash income. It is also an occupation in which a large number, particularly those who are married, are part-time workers.

Table 51

**Women Teachers, Nurses and Social Workers Who Were Wage-earners,
by Earnings, Canada, Year Ending June 1, 1951**

Earnings (\$)	School Teachers		Graduate Nurses		Social Welfare Workers	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 1,000.....	24,612	33.4	8,100	23.6	619	24.5
1,000 to 1,499.....	10,974	14.9	5,098	14.9	245	9.7
1,500 to 1,999.....	14,580	19.8	8,124	23.7	452	17.9
2,000 to 2,999.....	16,301	22.1	9,615	28.1	945	37.4
3,000 plus.....	5,036	6.8	534	1.6	199	7.9
Unknown.....	2,206	3.0	2,790	8.1	64	2.5
Total.....	73,709	100.0	34,261	100.0	2,524	99.9

SOURCE: *Census of Canada, 1951, Vol. 5, Table 21.*

Teachers

By far the most important profession for women, numerically (see Table 26) is the teaching profession. More than 70 per cent of all teachers are women.

In 1956-57 the median annual salary of women teachers in publicly controlled schools in Canada (except Quebec) was \$2,901; for men it was \$4,047. Table 52 shows that the salary differential between men and women teachers is greater in urban than in rural areas. Since women make up a higher proportion of the profession in the smaller centres where salaries are lower, this tends to bring down the median salary for women teachers.

Table 52

**Median Annual Salaries of Teachers by Size of Centre, by Sex,
Canada (except Quebec), 1956-1957**

Size of Centre	Median Annual Salary (\$)		Per cent Differential in Favour of Men Teachers
	Men	Women	
Urban—Population			
100,000 plus			
including suburbs.....	4,961	3,608	37.5
10,000 to 99,000.....	4,646	3,182	46.0
1,000 to 9,000.....	4,175	3,012	38.6
Rural—Rooms			
6 plus.....	3,842	2,830	35.8
2 to 5.....	3,110	2,482	25.3
1 room.....	2,471	2,389	9.7

SOURCE:

Unpublished information from DBS, Education Division.

The higher salaries generally paid in larger centres are associated with the fact that the teachers are, on the whole, better qualified than elsewhere; also, in large schools many assume administrative functions as well as teaching. Information about this is available for the year 1953-54. In some cases teachers are employed as administrative principals with no teaching duties. Positions of that kind are generally filled by men.

Table 53

**Median Annual Salaries of City Teachers with at Least 15 Years' Experience,
by Teaching Position, by Sex, Canada, 1953-1954**

Teaching Position	Salary (\$)					Per cent Women	
	Secondary		Elementary				
	M	F	M	F			
Administrative Principals ¹	6,217	4,375	5,825	3,775	12.1		
Teaching Principals ²	5,460	3,650	4,694	3,416	33.5		
Regular Teachers ³	4,298	3,613	3,954	3,228	90.4		

NOTE: Data for elementary schools exclude Ontario and Quebec; for secondary schools also exclude Prince Edward Island.

¹ Principals who spend more than half time in administration.

² Principals who spend half time or more in teaching.

³ Classroom teachers with secondary or elementary certificates.

SOURCE:

Teachers' Salaries and Qualifications, 1953-54, DBS, Education Division, Tables 19, 20.

Of city teachers with 15 years' experience, roughly three out of four are women. Women make up about 90 per cent of the regular teaching staff, but 88 per cent of the administrative principals and 66 per cent of the teaching principals are men (Table 53). This is an important factor in raising the median salary for men teachers.

In the teaching profession it is common to pay a supplement for higher qualifications. For both men and women, salaries are highest for teachers with a college education and lowest for those with a Class II certificate. Table 54 shows that except for those with the lowest class of certificate salaries of women teachers tend to increase progressively with added years of experience.

Table 54

Median Annual Salaries of Women Teachers by Class of Certificate and Experience, Canadian Provinces (except Ontario and Quebec) 1953-1954

<i>Class of Certificate*</i>	<i>Median Annual Salary by Years of Experience</i>			
	<i>0</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>20</i>
	\$	\$	\$	\$
Advanced.....	2,956	3,338	3,869	4,108
Graduate.....	2,217	2,995	3,390	3,502
Class I.....	1,916	2,236	2,683	2,818
Class II.....	1,793	1,744	1,788	2,022

* *Advanced*—at least one year beyond university degree, and required of teachers in academic secondary schools; *Graduate*—university degree with professional training, required for academic secondary schools (commercial specialists included); *Class I*—senior matriculation and one year's professional training; *Class II*—Junior matriculation and one year's professional training.

SOURCE:

Teachers' Salaries and Qualifications, 1953-54, op. cit., Table 21.

Nurses

At the time of the 1951 Census roughly 20 per cent of all professional women in Canada were graduate nurses. The census also classes nurses-in-training as professional women, and if they are added to the graduates, nurses make up 30 per cent of the women in professions. Except for teachers, this is by far the largest group.

Authentic information about salaries and earnings of nurses is meagre, but income tax statistics show that a high proportion of nurses are still in the low income classes (Table 55). Unlike the census, which covers the whole population, taxation statistics are based on a sample of income tax returns.

Table 55 shows that more than half of the nurses who paid income tax in 1956 had incomes under \$2,000. The proportion taxed on incomes of \$3,000 or over was about 8 per cent. The concentration in the lower income groups is to be expected since the classification by occupation is based mainly on the taxpayer's method of earning income. That is, only nurses engaged in private practice are listed in their professional capacity. This would mean that those who are generally higher paid (See Table 57) would be included with "employees".

Table 55

Nurses Subject to Income Tax by Income Class, Canada 1956

<i>Income Class (\$)</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
Under 1,000.....	1.0
1,000 to 1,999.....	51.8
2,000 to 2,999.....	39.2
3,000 to 3,999.....	6.8
4,000 plus.....	1.2
All Income Classes.....	100.0

SOURCE:

Taxation Statistics, 1958, Department of National Revenue, Taxation Division, Table 9, p. 70.

Rates charged by private duty nurses vary from province to province, but in line with remuneration for other workers, they tend to be higher in central and western Canada than in the Atlantic provinces. (See Table 56.)

Table 56

**Average Rates of Pay for Private Duty Nurses
8-Hour Day, Canadian Provinces**

<i>Province</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>Rate per Day (\$)</i>
Newfoundland.....	1954	8
Prince Edward Island.....	1954	6
Nova Scotia.....	1956	8
New Brunswick.....	1952-56	8
Quebec.....	{ 1955 1956	{ 8-10 10-12
Ontario.....	1954	10
Manitoba.....	1954	9
Saskatchewan.....	1954	10
Alberta.....	1954	8- 9.50
British Columbia.....	1954	12

SOURCE:

Letter from Department of National Health and Welfare, Research Division, March 6, 1958, based on information from the provincial nurses' associations.

Because about 40 per cent of Canada's nurses are in Ontario, a recent survey sponsored by the Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario which throws light on wages and working conditions of nurses in that province is of interest.

The daily average rate of pay reported in the 1956 survey for Ontario is \$11.13, considerably more than the \$10 average shown in Table 56. An important factor in this difference is that average pay for Ontario is based on returns from nurses in many different kinds of work, most others being paid at a higher rate than private duty nursing.

Table 57 shows that in Ontario nurses in private practice, who represent 19 per cent of the returns used in the survey, have the lowest *annual incomes* of all. Of course, a considerable number of them would be part-time workers. Forty-five per cent are married women. In fact, the four areas of work with the highest proportion of married women are also those with the lowest average salaries.

Since more than 40 per cent of the private duty nurses had at least 20 years' experience, it seems likely that a considerable number would be older women. Nurses in private practice, and perhaps also those in hospitals, would be more likely than some with higher pay to have meals and lodging provided.

More than half of the returns used in the survey were from hospital nurses who were also among the lowest paid groups. Hospital nurses, plus those in private practice, constitute three-quarters of the total

Table 57
Average Annual Salaries of Nurses by Occupation, Ontario, 1956

Occupation	Average Annual Salary (\$)
Teacher, University School of Nursing.....	4,471
Professional Organization.....	4,387
Armed Services.....	4,223
Air Line.....	3,517
Public Health (Non-official).....	3,462
Teacher, Hospital School of Nursing.....	3,456
Public Health (Official).....	3,409
Occupational Health.....	3,350
Hospital.....	2,952
Office.....	2,619
Private Practice.....	1,820
Other.....	3,393

SOURCE:

Report on the Personnel Information Survey, 1956, Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario, June 1957, p. 20.

sample. The number employed in the highest paid positions is small, and these tend to be women with other qualifications in addition to their professional training as nurses. About one-quarter of those who are teaching in University schools of nursing or working for the professional organizations are college graduates as well as trained nurses.

Table 57 includes nurses at many different levels of responsibility. The annual average salary for those working in hospitals (\$2,952) is not out of line with rates recommended by the Registered Nurses' Association of Ontario for hospital nurses in that province (Table 58). No doubt most hospital nurses would be on the general staff with a smaller proportion working as head nurses, instructors or supervisors. Table 58 shows that the recommended salaries are—and this is no doubt the case for actual earnings—highest in western and central Canada with lower rates in the Maritime provinces.

Table 58

Recommended Minimum Gross Monthly Salaries for Hospital Nurses, Canadian Provinces (except Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island), 1956

<i>Province</i>	<i>General Staff Nurse (R.N.)</i>	<i>Head Nurse</i>	<i>Instructor or Supervisor</i>
	\$	\$	\$
Nova Scotia.....	190	200	220
New Brunswick.....	175	195	215
Quebec.....	220	245	250
Ontario.....	235	260	275
Manitoba.....	210	235	250
Saskatchewan.....	225	250	265
Alberta.....	230	265	285
British Columbia.....	250	265	290

SOURCE:

Recommendations regarding personnel policy, provincial nurses' associations, 1956.

Social Workers

In October 1951 the Department of National Health and Welfare made a nation-wide study—the first of its kind—with a view to assessing requirements for social workers in Canada. The survey covered 4,221 welfare positions in social agencies, of which 3,986 or 94 per cent were then filled. Salary rates for those jobs are given in the survey report.

Salaries of social workers have risen a good deal since 1951, but the differentials between the sexes and between various types of jobs have probably not changed much.

At the time of the survey slightly more than half of the positions were held by women. About 42 per cent of the women and 18 per cent of the men working in the field were graduates of schools of social work. A considerable number of both men and women had taken some courses related to their work, but more than a third of the women and two-thirds of the men had no social work training at all.

However, a high proportion of those employed in social work jobs did have extensive experience in the work. This was particularly true of the men, more than 60 per cent of them having been in the field for at least five years. More than half of the women had been in social work for five years or more.

The survey of welfare positions shows that, as in other kinds of work, salary levels in social work are higher for men than for women. The median annual salary was about \$3,200 for men and \$2,580 for women. More than half of the men were receiving \$3,000 or more, a salary earned by only 22 per cent of the women. (See Table 59.)

Table 59

**Filled Social Work Positions by Annual Salary, by Sex,
Canada, October 1951**

Annual Salary (\$)	Women		Men	
	No.	%	No.	%
Under 2,000.....	319	15.8	72	3.7
2,000 to 2,999.....	1,136	56.4	666	34.1
3,000 to 3,999.....	361	17.9	663	34.0
4,000 to 4,999.....	68	3.4	290	14.9
5,000 plus.....	17	0.8	133	6.8
Unknown.....	114	5.7	128	6.6
All salaries.....	2,015	100.0	1,952	100.1

NOTE: In addition to total of 3,967 there were 19 filled positions with sex of occupant unknown.

SOURCE:

Survey of Welfare Positions, Department of National Health and Welfare, Research Division, April 1954, Table 48.

Many factors enter to explain why the men in social work, who generally have less professional training than the women, are nevertheless higher paid. Sex may be one of these.

It has been mentioned that on the whole the men had greater experience than the women. This is related to the fact that they tended to be older. Their median age was nearly 40 as compared with 36 for

women. One third of the women but just 20 per cent of the men were under 30. On the other hand, 27 per cent of the men and only 18 per cent of the women had passed their 50th birthday.

The survey notes that "the high proportion of staff with salaries of \$5,000 and over among the 'no courses' category represents to a large extent older, more experienced male staff in administrative positions¹." The younger people, particularly the women, were found in large numbers in private agencies, especially in the child and family welfare fields. There, pay is relatively low. Community chests and welfare councils have a very high proportion of administrative staff (90 per cent as against 23 per cent over all). In those agencies men predominate.

Social workers employed by public agencies were also predominantly men. This was particularly true in federal government jobs which were the highest paid of all. Many federal government positions involve administrative responsibility in addition to professional social work.

In social work teaching, where both qualifications and pay are relatively high, there are more women than men. However, the total number of such jobs is small—less than 6 per cent of the number of administrative and supervisory positions—so the over-all difference between the sexes is not greatly affected.

¹ *Survey of Welfare Positions, op. cit.*, p. 81.

V

Legislation Affecting Women Workers

*L*egislation dealing with various aspects of employment has an important bearing on the conditions under which women work in Canada. Under the British North America Act, the authority to legislate on labour matters, in so far as the great majority of workers are concerned, is in the hands of the provincial legislatures. It is only in certain "works, businesses and undertakings" whose activities are for the most part interprovincial or nation-wide in scope that federal rather than provincial laws apply to working conditions, and the only ones of these in which a substantial number of women are employed are inter-provincial transportation; radio, telephone and telegraph operations; and banking.

The Department of Labour in each province administers the labour laws enacted by its legislature. In order to ensure compliance with the minimum standards established by law the provinces altogether employ almost 500 inspectors, men and women who are engaged in inspecting work places. Some of these are technically qualified inspectors concerned with such matters as the safe operation of boilers, others are engaged in examining payrolls to see that wage and hour laws are being observed.

The main fields of labour legislation are health, safety and welfare, including compensation for industrial accidents; and wages, hours and other working conditions. Table 60 shows in a very general way which provinces have legislation in the various divisions of these fields.

Health, Safety and Welfare

Laws to protect the health, safety and welfare of men and women in their working environment constituted the first type of labour legislation. In its modern form, this kind of legislation usually sets out the general stipulation that an employer must keep the workplace in such a way that it will not be injurious to the health, safety and comfort of the employees. It may also include specific provisions in regard to

ventilation, light and heating. In places where there is dangerous machinery the law may require that the machines be guarded. If a dust-producing process is carried on there may be a requirement that a mechanical ventilation system be installed. For a variety of other hazards a large body of safety rules have been made minimum legal standards.

For the most part, provisions respecting health and safety are considered necessary for the protection of all workers and apply whether men or women are employed. There are some provisions, however, that apply particularly to women workers and not to men. An example of a provision applying only to women is the fairly common one that women working in factories wear a suitable head covering to prevent the danger of catching the hair in moving machinery.

Hazardous Occupations

There are also a number of provisions excluding women from hazardous operations or types of work. In all provinces women are prohibited from working underground in mines. In the Province of Quebec, women are prohibited from working on a number of processes including abattoir operations and those in which poisonous fumes are produced or dangerous explosives handled. In two provinces, British Columbia and Manitoba, restrictions have been placed on the weights which women may lift in the course of their work.

Welfare Facilities

Certain welfare provisions are particularly applicable to women. In some provinces and in some types of employment it is required that seats be provided for women workers if their occupation permits that they be seated. In two provinces, Ontario and Manitoba, where ten or more women are employed in an establishment, the employer is required to provide a rest room equipped with couches and chairs, and if 35 or more women are employed, a welfare supervisor must be employed.

Workmen's Compensation

Under a workmen's compensation law in each province, a woman worker who is disabled by an industrial accident or a disease caused by the nature of her employment is entitled to compensation. Compensation for a woman, as for a man, is based on the extent of disability and the amount of earnings. There is a ceiling, usually \$3,000

or \$4,000, on the amount of earnings which may be taken into account, and the maximum compensation for disability is limited to a specified percentage of earnings (70 per cent or 75 per cent, depending on the province). In fatal cases, dependents are awarded fixed monthly sums.

Wages, Hours and Other Working Conditions

For a substantial number of women, wages, hours and some other conditions of work are determined by collective bargaining and are set out in collective agreements. Labour relations legislation which protects the right of a worker to be a member of a union and gives a representative union bargaining rights on behalf of the employees is in effect in each province and in respect to the industries under federal jurisdiction.

Other laws have established basic standards in respect to certain terms of employment. To employ a person to work under conditions less favourable than these standards is considered to be contrary to the interest of society as a whole, and neither a private agreement nor a collective agreement may validly contain such conditions.

Wage Rates

For a very large proportion of women employees in Canada, minimum wage rates are set by law. These apply to most industrial and service workers but not to agriculture workers or employees in private homes. In most provinces, the same minimum wage rates apply to male workers. In Ontario and Nova Scotia, however, minimum rates are not set for men, and in New Brunswick they apply only to male cannery workers; in Alberta, Manitoba and Newfoundland, and in a few industries in British Columbia, a lower rate is set for women than for men.

Rates are not prescribed in the minimum wage Acts themselves, but in each province are set out in regulations under the Act, based on the recommendation of a minimum wage board established by the Act. The methods of setting wage rates differ. In some provinces they are issued for individual industries, in others the rates apply generally to most industries, but they may differ between urban and rural areas or large industrial areas and smaller cities and towns.

Minimum wage orders are reviewed fairly frequently. Information about the current rates can be obtained from the Department of Labour in each province.

Equal Pay

Laws that prohibit discrimination in rates of pay to women workers are a recent development of special interest to women. Such laws have been passed in seven provinces (first in Ontario, then in Saskatchewan, British Columbia, Nova Scotia, Manitoba, Alberta and Prince Edward Island) and also for the industries under federal jurisdiction. Under these laws a woman employee who considers that her rate of pay is not equal to that paid to a male fellow employee doing the same kind of work may make a complaint to the Department of Labour which administers the Act, and there is provision for investigation of the complaint and for redress if it is well founded.

Hours of Work

The first limitation on hours in Canada restricted the hours women and young persons were permitted to work in factories. The main purpose of these laws was to curb long hours which were detrimental to the health and welfare of the worker. The present legislation of five provinces, (Manitoba, New Brunswick, Ontario, Quebec and Saskatchewan) still contains some provisions of this type, which limit the hours of work even if overtime rates are paid.

The more recent legislation on hours of work, however, applies to men as well as to women and sets a limit closer to the prevailing practice. Five provinces (British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba and Ontario) have hours of work laws of general application setting a maximum of eight hours a day and 44 or 48 hours a week. In some instances these limitations may be exceeded if one and one-half times the regular rate is paid. In one province, Manitoba, the length of the maximum work week is 44 hours for women and 48 hours for men.

In connection with the regulation of minimum wages, an overtime rate of pay after prescribed hours of work is set for women employees subject to minimum wage orders in Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and Newfoundland.

Associated with limits on hours of work is the prohibition of night work for women. Night work in factories is prohibited for women in some provinces. With a permit from the inspector the limitation on working hours can be extended in some cases to eleven o'clock at night, or the Minister of Labour may have discretion to allow night work. Some provinces require that an employer furnish transportation for women who work late in certain types of employment, mainly restaurants.

Rest Periods

Rest periods are another associated matter on which there are some legislative requirements. So far as weekly rest is concerned most provinces require 24 hours in a week, usually consecutive, and in British Columbia the requirement for a substantial number of women workers is 32 hours in a week. All the provisions regarding rest periods during the day apply only to women. In Manitoba, it is required that a rest period of 10 minutes be allowed each female employee for a work period lasting three hours or more. Five provinces (Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario, Quebec and Nova Scotia) set a minimum lunch period for women workers in factories. In British Columbia at least a half-hour free time must be given after five consecutive hours of work. In four provinces (Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario and Quebec) if women in factories work on into the evening they must be given time off for a meal.

Vacations With Pay

Minimum standards have also been established by law in respect to the granting of annual vacations with pay. Eight provinces (British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia) have legislation of this kind requiring the employer to give an employee a vacation with pay, in some provinces one week, in other two weeks.¹

Legislation applicable to industries under federal jurisdiction requiring an annual paid vacation of one or two weeks depending on length of service was passed by Parliament in 1958.

Maternity Protection

Maternity protection legislation in British Columbia prohibits employment of women for the six weeks following childbirth. It also provides that a woman who is employed up to six weeks before the probable date of confinement is entitled to leave until the child is born and for six weeks afterwards.

Fair Employment Practices

Laws to prohibit discrimination in employment on grounds of race, colour, religion or national origin have been enacted by Parlia-

¹ On March 26, 1958 the Saskatchewan legislature passed an Act providing that employees who complete five years with the same employer will be eligible for three weeks with pay.

ment and by the legislatures in six provinces since 1951. The principle underlying this legislation is that selection for employment should be based on an individual's fitness for the job, and advancement on his performance in the job. Such legislation is one of the means by which public policy is shown to be against the social evil of discrimination.

Summary of Provincial Legislation Affecting Women

Table 60 shows the fields in which labour legislation has been enacted in each province. The mark X indicates that the legislature has dealt with the subject, but no attempt is made to show whether the legislation is comprehensive or confined only to certain employment or to certain aspects of the subject. Specific information on any provincial labour laws may be obtained from the Department of Labour in the province concerned. Information is also available in an annual publication of the Federal Department of Labour entitled *Provincial Labour Standards*¹ concerning child labour, holidays, hours of work, minimum wages, equal pay for equal work, fair employment practices, weekly rest-day and workmen's compensation. The Department also publishes an annual bulletin on workmen's compensation entitled *Workmen's Compensation in Canada*.

Unemployment Insurance and Placement Service for Women Workers

The Unemployment Insurance Act establishes a national system of insurance against unemployment. Under this insurance system benefits are available to large numbers of men and women workers in the event of unemployment. The Act has wide coverage, but there are a few industries and occupations outside its scope. Not yet included are domestic service in private homes, school teaching, private nursing, or employment in charitable institutions or in most hospitals. Employees paid on an hourly, daily or piece rate basis are covered regardless of the amount of their annual earnings, but other employees are excluded if their earnings exceed \$4,800 a year.

The insurance plan is financed by contributions from the employee, the employer and the Federal Government. The employer is required to deduct from the weekly earnings of the employee an amount ranging

¹ These bulletins are obtainable from the Queen's Printer, Superintendent of Government Publications, Ottawa, Price 25 cents each. Current developments in any of these fields may be followed through the Labour Law Section of the *Labour Gazette*, the official journal of the Federal Department of Labour. Annual subscription is \$2.00, single copies 25 cents.

Table 60
 Provincial Legislation Affecting Women Workers, 1958

from eight cents to 60 cents depending on the amount of earnings. The employer pays this into the unemployment insurance fund along with his own contribution of equal amount. The Government makes a contribution equal to one-fifth of the combined contributions of the employer and employee, and pays the costs of administration.

If a woman is capable of and available for work and unable to obtain suitable employment she may draw benefits provided that she has made the required number of contributions. She must be genuinely available for work and prepared to accept immediately suitable employment, otherwise she is not entitled to benefit. There are also other grounds on which a worker may be disqualified. An employee discharged by reason of her own misconduct or who leaves the employment voluntarily without just cause may be disqualified for a period not exceeding six weeks. Until 1953 a person who became ill while drawing benefits, and who was therefore not available for employment, was disqualified, but a 1953 amendment to the Act provides that in these circumstances benefits may continue to be paid.

The amount of benefits is related to average contributions, and is greater for a person with one or more dependants. The lowest rate for a person without a dependant is \$6 a week and the highest \$23; for a person with a dependant the lowest rate is \$8 and the highest \$30.

The Act is administered by the Unemployment Insurance Commission which has local offices in all cities and in many towns across Canada.

The Act authorizes the Commission to operate a National Employment Service to serve employers seeking workers and workers seeking employment whether they are insurable or not and whether they are claiming benefit or not. The service is free, and meets a growing need, as with the growth of industrial communities direct contact between an employer and a prospective employee becomes increasingly difficult. Employment offices vary in size from a small unit with a staff of three or four persons serving a sparsely populated area to large, highly organized establishments in metropolitan centres, most of which have sections specializing in the placement of women. The employment offices are all part of a national system. Their first task is to assist applicants to find jobs in their local areas, but when employers' requirements cannot be filled locally they may be made known through a system of clearance, to workers in other areas or across Canada.

Local offices provide special services to young persons seeking their first jobs, to older workers, and to persons who are physically

handicapped. An unemployed person claiming unemployment insurance benefits may be directed by the Commission to an approved course of instruction for the purpose of improving his or her opportunity for gainful employment.

Specific information about unemployment insurance or the placement services available may be obtained from any local office of the **Unemployment Insurance Commission**.

Conditions of Work

Conditions of work are generally understood to include not only the physical attributes of the job but also rates of remuneration, hours of work, the extent to which employees are granted paid vacations and statutory holidays, rest periods and other fringe benefits. Among the more important fringe benefits are insurance against loss of earnings through illness, and retirement or pension plans. For women workers there may be special provision for other fringe benefits as well.

Working conditions in Canada today are a far cry from those that prevailed at the turn of the century. The Royal Commission on Relations of Labor and Capital reported in 1889 that in a factory where "workmen were obliged to work ten hours a day, if the machinery stopped for any cause these employees were obliged to work at night, after their day's work, for a time equal to that lost by the stoppage".¹

The great strides that have been made since that time have resulted from many influences. The National Council of Women has long been active in promoting measures to improve the lot of working women. Some reforms originated for the benefit of women and children, two groups that present a special appeal to the conscience of both employers and the general public, have come to be considered desirable and even necessary for all workers. On the other hand, women workers have gained as a result of improvements brought about mainly through the efforts of men, who have always been the backbone of the trade union movement.

A combination of these influences is illustrated by legislation restricting hours of work. It came as a result of union demands, and the

¹ Report of the *Royal Commission on Relations of Labor and Capital*, Ottawa, 1889, Appendix O, p. 72.

early legislation applied only to women. Now some acts cover all workers, although standard hours for women are generally shorter than for men.

There is no doubt that Canadian unions have had tremendous influence, both in bargaining collectively for their own members and through the work of their legislative committees which keep before governments proposals for measures to improve the lot of all workers. Much of the labour legislation now on the statute books can be traced back to ideas advanced to governments by trade unions. Although men make up the bulk of the trade union membership, women have also contributed to union work. But a high proportion of women workers are young, and many are in white collar occupations. Both conditions are associated with lack of union participation among men as well as among women. In the case of women there is the added factor that few expect to spend a lifetime in paid employment, and those who do so are a minority.

There are various ways of ensuring that certain standards are observed by employers in their establishments. In some countries minimum requirements with respect to working conditions are set out in the constitution. In other countries, of which Canada is one, legislation has grown up over the years to deal with various aspects of the work situation. (See Chapter V.)

Labour legislation usually fixes minimum standards only, leaving it to the unions to raise them through collective bargaining. Whether the regulation is by law or through negotiation by the workers' representatives, conditions laid down generally apply to all workers, regardless of sex. Sometimes there are provisions that apply only to women.

It should be pointed out that "the purpose of most special regulations concerning the employment of women is the protection of maternity. Such regulations are intended to preserve the vitality of the woman worker for normal childbearing and to help her to carry out the maternal tasks devolving upon her in succeeding years, such as the care of her children, their education, etc. By strictly limiting the hours worked by women, by saving them from the exhausting strain of night work, and by preventing them from being deformed by carrying too heavy loads or from being poisoned by handling dangerous substances, legislation is really endeavouring to preserve the maternal function and to ensure the well-being of future generations".¹

¹ *The Law and Women's Work*, International Labour Office, 1939, p. 16.

As shown in Chapter V Canadian legislation exists in many of these areas. However, only in two western provinces is there legislative provision concerning employment of women, before and after childbirth.¹ Yet this is sometimes one of the terms in collective bargaining agreements.

The main source of information concerning working conditions of Canadians is the survey conducted annually by the Economics and Research Branch of the Department of Labour. The survey covers establishments with 15 or more employees in the whole range of manufacturing industries as well as in certain non-manufacturing industries. In both categories there are several industries employing a high proportion of women. In recent years banks and head offices of insurance companies, both large-scale employers of women, have been included. The provisions of collective agreements made between workers and employers in various industries and analyzed by the Economics and Research Branch help to fill out the picture.

The survey of working conditions does not deal separately with conditions of women workers, but the proportion of women employed in different kinds of establishments is known. It was therefore possible to select the industries with the highest proportion of women workers. These are shown in Table 61 and conditions of work in these industries are examined in detail.

Of course working conditions of men and women differ somewhat, even within the same industries. One reason for this is that women are concentrated in certain occupations and men in others.

Concerning pension and insurance plans, information is lacking as to the difference in treatment of men and women under various schemes. Young women who do not plan to continue for many years in gainful employment, tend to be less interested in pension schemes than are young men who feel the existing or probable responsibility of providing for a wife and a family. When participation is voluntary married women may choose not to join, especially if their husbands already have such protection for the whole family.

Because these factors are considerations for many women, it is sometimes assumed that pension and insurance schemes are not as important to women workers as to men. In some establishments, therefore, even plans that are compulsory for male workers are not

¹ For B.C. provision see p. 71. The Alberta Labour Act empowers the Board of Industrial Relations to prohibit the employment of a pregnant woman on days shifts for six weeks before and two months after childbirth, and on night shifts during pregnancy. No order has been issued.

applicable to women. Further, insurance plans for women do not always permit the same range of participation and ultimate benefits as do those for men.

In this connection it is important to note that frequently the retirement age is earlier for women than for men; also that life expectancy of women is greater. These factors tend to increase the cost of pensions for women and militate against the equal treatment of women in pension schemes.

Nevertheless, as women become more fully integrated into the labour force, and as the need for social security measures for all people becomes more widely recognized, pension and insurance plans for women are being seriously considered. After studying the question, a committee made up of representatives of various Canadian Government departments has recently suggested that "women should be treated in the same way as men in pension plans, and that in particular the normal retirement age for females in any pension plan be the same as for males".¹

Married women who give up their jobs are now being encouraged to hold their pension credits in the form of deferred annuities against possible risks, such as the loss of a husband leaving them alone with responsibility for their children.

Bearing in mind that data from the annual survey by the Department of Labour apply to all employees, men and women, in the establishments covered, some idea of the working conditions that prevail in industries where women make up a substantial number of the workers can be formed from the information that follows.² The information on hours of factory workers is supplemented by additional data for men and women separately from the survey of earnings and hours in the larger plants made annually by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

Factory Workers

Women in factories are found in much larger numbers as well as making up a higher proportion of the workers in industries making consumer goods than in the heavier manufacturing industries. In October 1956, women made up about a fifth of all factory workers, but of those

¹ *Pension Plans and the Employment of Older Workers*, Department of Labour, 1957, p. 54.

² The most recent survey of working conditions in manufacturing made by the Department of Labour, from which over-all information is now available, shows that considerable gains have been made by the workers in the past two years. See "Working Conditions in Manufacturing", the *Labour Gazette*, September 1958, p. 1049.

making consumer goods one in three was a woman. In the heavier industries women represented only about one in twelve.¹

A high proportion of women in factories are making clothing and food, which have traditionally been made by women, but in an earlier day were made at home. The extreme variation in participation by women in different industries is illustrated by the fact that in plants producing transportation equipment, and iron and steel products, less than 5 per cent of the wage-earners are women; on the other hand women make up about three-quarters of those manufacturing clothing (textile and fur).

The seven manufacturing industries which according to the Department of Labour annual survey of working conditions numbered more than 20 per cent women among their non-office workers in 1956², are shown in Table 61. These seven industries employ roughly 73 per cent of the women working in factories covered by the survey. The

Table 61

Manufacturing Industries in which More than One-fifth of Plant Workers Were Women, Canada, April 1956

Industry	Women Plant Workers	
	Number	Percentage of all workers
1. Clothing.....	37,634	69.1
2. Tobacco and Tobacco Products.....	4,440	59.8
3. Leather Products.....	7,689	42.7
4. Textile Products.....	16,753	33.4
5. Electrical Apparatus and Supplies.....	14,588	28.3
6. Food and Beverages.....	21,371	24.1
7. Rubber Products.....	2,979	20.5
Seven Industries.....	105,454	37.0
Total Manufacturing.....	144,516	18.1

SOURCE:

Special tabulation from annual survey of *Working Conditions in Canadian Industry*, 1956.

¹ *Preliminary Statement on Earnings and Hours in Manufacturing*, 1956, DBS, Labour and Prices Division, 1957, Table 1.

² Special tabulation from annual survey of *Working Conditions in Canadian Industry*, Department of Labour, Economics and Research Branch, 1956.

survey takes in all establishments with 15 or more employees, and these represent approximately two-thirds of Canadian factory workers¹.

Of course the industries listed are not necessarily those employing the greatest number of women. However, the clothing industry is by far the most important in either case, because it accounts for more than a quarter of all women factory workers, and women make up nearly 70 per cent of the workers in the industry. Three other large industries, Food and Beverages, Textile Products (except clothing), and Electrical Apparatus and Supplies (mainly refrigerators and radios), are among the top six in number of women employed as well as in proportion of women workers. Smaller manufacturing industries which nevertheless employ a high proportion of women, are Leather Products (mainly boots and shoes), Rubber Products (including footwear) and Tobacco and Tobacco Products.

In interpreting the information concerning working conditions it should be kept in mind that conditions vary in different parts of the country, and that some industries are concentrated in a particular province. The industry as a whole may reflect the local situation, which is influenced by provincial legislation and other factors.

For example, in the clothing and textile industries, which employ so many women, well over half of the workers were in Quebec in 1955.² On the other hand, 70 per cent of the electrical workers and more than 65 per cent of the rubber workers were in another province—Ontario.

Hours of Work

Information concerning the standard work week of employees in various industries is not available for men and women separately, but it is known that the standard week tends to be shorter for women than for men. Standard weekly hours refer to the number of hours per week after which employees are considered to be working overtime. The actual number of hours worked may be more or less, since some work overtime and others are part-time or casual workers. The seasonal factor is important in industries in which women workers are concentrated, such as clothing and textiles, and in certain branches of the food industry, particularly the canning of fruits and vegetables.

Information in Table 62 concerning the standard work week in 1956 applies to both men and women in the industries shown. But

¹ The annual census of manufacturing industries conducted by the DBS shows a slightly higher percentage of women workers in various industries, but the order of the leading industries is the same.

² *Census of Manufacturing Industries of Canada, 1955*, DBS, Industry and Merchandising Division, 1957, Table 5.

from the accompanying list of average hours worked it can be seen that women generally work a shorter week than men.

Although comparable information is not available for 1956, the DBS survey of earnings and hours in manufacturing for 1955 showed

Table 62

Weekly Hours of Plant Workers in Selected Manufacturing Industries, Canada, April 1956

(FOR COMPARISON)

Industry	Percentage of Employees in Establishments Reporting Standard Work Week of:			Average Hours Worked by Men and Women Wage-Earners in Survey Week, Oct. 1956‡	
	40 Hrs. or Less	45 Hrs. or More	Five Days	Men	Women
	%	%	%		
1. Clothing.....	53.3	24.5	88.1	42.3	39.0
2. Tobacco and Tobacco Products.....	90.6	6.1	95.1	41.5	38.2
3. Leather Products.....	25.4	57.8	80.2	41.7	38.9
4. Textile Products.....	40.8	42.4	79.2	44.7	40.5
5. Electrical Apparatus and Supplies.....	82.7	7.5	99.5	42.7	39.3
6. Food and Beverages....	48.8	35.1	67.9	43.2	38.6
7. Rubber Products.....	58.8	31.2	97.6	43.1	39.9

SOURCE:

Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Table 2.

‡ Preliminary Report on *Earnings and Hours of Work in Manufacturing, op. cit., 1956, Table 1.*

that in the survey week in October, 32 per cent of the women wage-earners, but only 15 per cent of the men, worked less than 40 hours; on the other hand, 34 per cent of the men but only 24 per cent of the women worked 45 hours or more¹.

There are many reasons for the generally shorter work week for women than for men. In addition to a shorter standard work week which is related to tradition, and in some cases fixed by legislation, there is a higher proportion of part-time and short-time workers among them. Absentee rates are also higher for women.

¹ *Earnings and Hours of Work in Manufacturing, op. cit., 1955, Table E.*

Vacations With Pay

Canadian factory workers today enjoy more generous vacation benefits than ever before. Practically all of those covered by the 1956 survey of working conditions were in plants requiring not more than one year of service before the one-week vacation was granted. As has been stated in Chapter V, legislation requiring at least this minimum vacation is in effect in all provinces except Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island, neither one being highly industrialized.¹

More than 90 per cent of the workers in plants covered by the survey become entitled to two weeks' vacation with pay if they stay on the job long enough, and considerable headway has been made in reducing the length of service required. For several years now the two-week vacation has been common for office workers after one year's service, but the great majority of factory workers must be on the job much longer to qualify for a two-week vacation.

In 1956 one-third of the factory workers covered by the survey were required to work five years before becoming eligible for two weeks' vacation with pay. Another 28 per cent were reported to be entitled to two weeks off after three years' work.

In the tobacco industry 90 per cent of the workers were given two weeks off after two years' service. More than half of those making rubber products and electrical apparatus and supplies became entitled

Table 63

Some Provisions for Vacations with Pay for Plant Workers in Selected Manufacturing Industries, Canada, April 1956

Percentage of Employees in Establishments Reporting:

Industry	One Week after One Year or Less	Two Weeks after Two Years or Less	Three Weeks after 15 Years or Less
	%	%	%
1. Clothing.....	89.5	44.8	7.0
2. Tobacco and Tobacco Products.....	99.2	90.9	82.6
3. Leather Products.....	60.6	46.0	11.0
4. Textile Products.....	87.8	17.2	15.5
5. Electrical Apparatus and Supplies....	96.2	12.1	84.3
6. Food and Beverages.....	85.4	40.2	52.6
7. Rubber Products.....	99.5	1.0	87.0

SOURCE:

Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Table 4.

¹ See also reference to 1958 legislation providing for paid vacations in industries under federal jurisdiction, p. 71.

to two weeks with pay after three years. On the other hand, nearly two-thirds of the textile workers were in establishments requiring five years of work to earn two weeks' vacation with pay.

To earn a three-week vacation, factory workers generally must have been on the job at least 15 years, and after 25 years' service a small proportion—some 8 per cent—became eligible for four weeks' vacation with pay.

Paid Statutory Holidays

The Parliament of Canada has named certain days to be observed as legal holidays throughout the country, but except for the civil service and banks there is no provision that work must cease on those days.

In some provinces legislation dealing with holidays requires that certain kinds of establishments be closed on specified days. The number of days varies, but they generally do not include all those declared to be public holidays throughout Canada. Some provincial regulations provide regular pay for holidays when they are not worked, or overtime pay for work performed on holidays, either for all workers or for women workers only.

Any holidays beyond those fixed by statute or regulation are generally obtained through collective bargaining.

Table 64 shows that of the manufacturing industries with more than one-fifth women workers in 1956 those making rubber products

Table 64

**Some Provisions for Paid Statutory Holidays for Plant Workers
in Selected Manufacturing Industries, Canada, April 1956**

Industry	Percentage of Employees in Establishments Where Number of Paid Statutory Holidays Allowed Plant Workers is:	
	1-5 days	8 days or more
	%	%
1. Clothing.....	33.7	25.2
2. Tobacco and Tobacco Products.....	—	91.9
3. Leather Products.....	29.0	35.9
4. Textile Products.....	9.8	46.2
5. Electrical Apparatus and Supplies.....	2.3	93.1
6. Food and Beverages.....	4.1	78.4
7. Rubber Products.....	—	96.7

SOURCE:

Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Table 6.

and electrical supplies, or processing tobacco have the most generous provision for paid statutory holidays.

Rest Periods

In 1956 about two-thirds of all factory workers were permitted rest periods during the working day. Provision for rest periods was somewhat more common than elsewhere in industries employing a high proportion of women. This is no doubt related to the fact that legislative provisions for rest periods during the day apply only to women. (See page 71.)

The most common practice is to allow two rest periods of ten minutes each per day. (See Table 65.) Some workers are given two periods of 15 minutes each, but this is unusual. The highest proportion permitted these longer rest periods is in the manufacture of food and beverages where one worker in four enjoys two 15-minute periods off work.

Table 65

Rest Periods for Plant Workers in Selected Manufacturing Industries, Canada, April 1956

Percentage of Employees in Establishments Reporting:

Industry	2 Periods of 15 Minutes	2 Periods of 10 Minutes	Other Provision	Total Reporting Rest Periods
	%	%	%	%
1. Clothing.....	14.7	44.3	18.0	77.0
2. Tobacco and Tobacco Products.....	5.6	55.8	11.3	72.7
3. Leather Products.....	11.5	51.1	12.6	75.2
4. Textile Products.....	9.4	48.2	7.1	64.7
5. Electrical Apparatus and Supplies....	3.0	59.9	2.6	65.5
6. Food and Beverages.....	25.0	58.8	6.2	90.0
7. Rubber Products.....	2.4	82.7	14.9	100.0

SOURCE:

Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Table 8.

Pension and Insurance Plans

Pension Plans

In 1956, 64 per cent of Canadian factory workers were in plants with a pension scheme in operation, but not every eligible employee would be covered. Under the great majority of these schemes the employer paid at least one-half of the premium.

The proportion of workers with a pension scheme available to them was highest in industries mainly employing men, such as Petroleum and Coal Products, Paper Products, and Chemicals. The industries offering pension schemes to the smallest proportion of workers were Leather Products, and Clothing (textile and fur), both large-scale employers of women.

However, in all other industries where 20 per cent or more of the workers were women, at least the average proportion for all factory workers (64 per cent) could avail themselves of pension plans. In the Tobacco Industry, and Electrical Apparatus and Supplies, pension plans were open to well over 80 per cent.

Group Life Insurance

Table 66 shows that group life insurance schemes were in operation in factories employing more than 85 per cent of the plant workers in 1956. Such protection was therefore available to a considerably greater number than were eligible for pension plans. Under these life insurance schemes too, employers generally paid at least one-half of the premium. The coverage in the Clothing (textile and fur) industry as well as in Leather Products was again low in comparison with other industries.

Compensation for Wage Loss Due to Illness

Although 77 per cent of factory workers were in plants where insurance schemes were available to cover wage loss due to illness, in the

Table 66

Pension and Insurance Schemes for Plant Workers in Selected Manufacturing Industries, Canada, April 1956

Percentage of Plant Workers in Establishments Reporting:

<i>Industry</i>	<i>Pension Plans</i>	<i>Group Life Insurance Plans</i>	<i>Insurance for Wage Loss Due to Illness</i>
		%	%
1. Clothing.....	28.6	56.2	47.1
2. Tobacco and Tobacco products.....	87.8	92.6	57.4
3. Leather Products.....	17.9	67.3	58.0
4. Textile Products.....	69.0	92.7	84.5
5. Electrical Apparatus and Supplies.....	82.8	79.7	75.9
6. Food and Beverages.....	68.7	87.7	69.2
7. Rubber Products.....	83.9	94.5	90.5

SOURCE:

Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Tables 10, 12, 14.

three industries employing the highest proportion of women, a considerably smaller proportion were covered. (See Table 66.)

Special Benefits

The Economics and Research Branch of the Department of Labour has analyzed the main provisions of 458 collective agreements covering 308,500 workers in the manufacturing industries. (See Table 67.) These were selected from more than 3,000 contracts on file in the Branch. The agreements analyzed apply to roughly 40 per cent of all workers covered by agreements on file.

The number of workers in industries employing a high proportion of women was as follows:

Table 67

Workers Covered by Analysis of Collective Agreements in Selected Manufacturing Industries, Canada, 1956

<i>Industry</i>	<i>No. of Workers</i>
1. Clothing.....	26,300
2. Tobacco and Tobacco Products.....	3,300
3. Leather Products.....	3,000
4. Textile Products.....	16,100
5. Electrical Apparatus and Supplies.....	26,800
6. Food and Beverages.....	29,300
7. Rubber Products.....	7,400
Seven Industries.....	112,200
Total Manufacturing.....	308,500

SOURCE:

"Collective Agreements in Canadian Manufacturing Industries, 1956", *The Labour Gazette*, April 1957, p. 454.

More than 85 per cent of those covered by the agreements analyzed were plant workers, but some agreements were made on behalf of office workers as well; others applied only to the office staff.

Among the more important provisions affecting women workers is one concerning equal pay for equal work. (See also legislative provisions for equal pay, page 70.) With the growing number of married women in the labour force, provisions for maternity leave are of wide interest.

Equal Pay

Equal pay provisions of one kind or another were found in 10 per cent of the agreements analyzed, and these covered 17 per cent of the workers. This is not to say that only 17 per cent enjoyed equal pay. Roughly 60 per cent were in plants where no mention was made of a sex differential in pay rates. It is possible that some of these would in fact pay the rate for the job regardless of sex. It is common where equal pay is in effect to set out rates to be paid for specific jobs without any mention of sex of the worker.

A considerable number of equal pay provisions were found in various agreements in the food industry, for example in the canning of fruits and vegetables and in baking.

Equal pay provisions vary a good deal. Some give general recognition to "the principle of equal pay for equal work" which is not further defined. An occasional agreement mentions that this recognition is in accordance with legislative enactments.

Sometimes the equal pay clause goes so far as to say the woman must be doing a job "formerly done by a man¹" or "usually done by a man" or both. In other instances the work for which women are to be paid the same rates as men is described as work of "male classification".

It is common to stipulate that the woman must be doing the work or be capable of doing it "without assistance", or that she must "render equal service" or "obtain approximately equal results in quality and quantity of production with adult male employees".

However the provisions are worded, the intention seems to be to ensure that where men and women are actually doing identical jobs they are to receive the same pay.

Maternity Leave

Provision for maternity leave was made in 6 per cent of the agreements analyzed, and these agreements represented 7 per cent of the workers covered. It seems likely that in many plants there would be informal arrangements made in such cases, although there is no recognition of them in the work contract. However, where there is no overall provision concerning maternity leave the granting of the privilege would probably depend somewhat on the employment situation.

¹ A recent decision by a conciliation board of the Ontario Department of Labour awarded a woman a 17 cents an hour pay increase retroactive to August 1956. She had been placed in a job formerly done by a man and was being paid at a lower rate.

Conditions under which leave is granted in cases of pregnancy vary a good deal, but it seems to be understood that leave is to be taken without pay. It is customary to stipulate that seniority rights are maintained, but that time does not accumulate while the woman is away. Sometimes she is permitted to accumulate seniority time for a fixed period during maternity leave. There may be provision that a woman must have spent some fixed minimum time on the job before she can take maternity leave. The time varies from one year to three.

The purpose of these maternity leave clauses seems to be (1) to protect the employee's health and her job, and/or (2) to protect the company's interest in maintaining production and keeping on the job only workers who are carrying on efficiently. Sometimes the main emphasis is on the workers' point of view and the privileges are set out to which a woman is entitled; in other agreements the employer's point of view appears to dominate with emphasis on ensuring that the woman does not stay on the job after her physical condition has become a handicap in her work. This provision is of course designed also to safeguard the health of mother and child, which ties in with the philosophy behind the International Labour Organization convention dealing with this subject.

Length of leave permitted varies widely, and in many cases it is not specified. The shortest period mentioned was three months, but this could be extended up to one year. One year was sometimes stated to be the maximum maternity leave, but it appears to be fairly common to allow from eight to 10 months.

One agreement stipulated that a woman could continue to work if she had a doctor's certificate, to the end of the fifth month of pregnancy, but no longer. Another provided that leave was to commence not later than the sixth month of pregnancy. In yet another agreement, which also permitted leave to be taken at the end of the fifth month, it was stated that:

Failure to comply with this policy will be regarded as a breach of safety and health rules and may result in disciplinary action being taken.

Although provisions concerning return to work generally stipulate some maximum time after confinement that is allowed for return (the time varies up to one year), several agreements also fix a minimum period that a woman must remain off work after the birth of a child, for example two months.

Maternity leave provisions do not generally guarantee that the woman will be given the same job on her return to work. It is more likely

that she will be given "the first vacancy on the same job for which she is qualified". In some cases there is no obligation on the company to rehire her, but if a woman is rehired she retains her seniority rights.

Office Workers

The main source of information concerning employment conditions of office workers is the above-named annual survey by the Department of Labour. In addition to office workers in manufacturing plants it covers those in public utilities and wholesale trade as well as employees of chartered banks and in head offices of insurance companies.

Of all the office workers included more than 60 per cent were in manufacturing plants. Another 16 per cent were in banks, some 11 per cent in wholesale establishments, about 5 per cent in public utilities and some 4 per cent in insurance companies.

The office workers covered by the survey represent about 48 per cent of all those doing office work according to the Labour Force Survey estimates of that time. As Table 68 shows, more than one-third of the office workers covered by the survey of working conditions were women. The highest proportion of women was in the insurance companies and the banks. In those establishments, roughly 60 per cent were women, which approximates the proportion of women among clerical workers according to the Labour Force Survey for the week ending April 21, 1956.

Table 68

Office Employees Covered by Department of Labour Annual Survey of Working Conditions, by Industry and Sex, Canada April 1956

Industry	Employees					
	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Manufacturing.....	140,966	68.8	63,915	31.2	204,881	100.0
Public Utilities.....	9,954	67.8	4,726	32.2	14,680	100.0
Wholesale Trade.....	21,702	61.0	13,848	39.0	35,550	100.0
Banking (chartered banks).....	21,617	41.9	29,990	58.1	51,607	100.0
Life Insurance (head office employees).....	4,267	35.7	7,694	64.3	11,961	100.0
Total.....	198,506	62.3	120,173	37.7	318,679	100.0

SOURCE:

Special tabulation from annual survey of *Working Conditions in Canadian Industry*, 1956.

In interpreting the following information concerning working conditions it should be kept in mind that in the offices of manufacturing plants, public utilities firms and wholesale establishments the proportion of women is low.

Hours of Work

The vast majority of office workers included in the survey of working conditions enjoyed a standard work week of 40 hours or less in 1956. (See Table 69.) Only in wholesale houses were 10 per cent of the office employees required to work more than a 40-hour week.

In each of the industries the percentage of workers on a five-day week corresponded closely to the percentage on the "40 hours or less" schedule.

Except for those employed in manufacturing plants, average weekly hours worked by office employees are not known for men and women separately. For manufacturing this information is published triennially by the DBS, and in 1954, during the week ending October 31 men in offices of manufacturing plants worked on the average 39.4 hours, women, 37.8 hours.

Table 69

Weekly Hours of Office Workers in Specified Industries, Canada, April 1956

Industry	Percentage of Employees in Establishments Reporting Standard Work Week of:		
	40 hours or less	over 40 hours	Five Days
Manufacturing.....	% 93.5	% 6.5	% 90.0
Public Utilities.....	99.4	.6	96.9*
Wholesale Trade.....	89.6	10.4	88.2*
Banking (chartered banks).....	92.8	7.2	92.8
Life Insurance (head office employees).....	100.0	—	100.0

* Includes a few in establishments reporting alternate schedules of 5 and $5\frac{1}{2}$ days.
SOURCE:

Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Tables 21, 34, 35, and unpublished information concerning banks and life insurance companies.

Vacations With Pay

The granting of two weeks' vacation with pay after not more than a year on the job has come to be accepted practice in establishments employing more than 90 per cent of the office workers covered by the

survey of working conditions. (See Table 70.) In banks and head offices of insurance companies all office workers enjoy two weeks off after one year's work.

However, to earn a three-week paid vacation the great majority of office workers included in the survey must work more than 10 years.

Table 70
**Vacations with Pay of Office Workers in Specified Industries,
Canada, April 1956**

Percentage of Employees in Establishments Reporting:

Industry	One Week After Unspecified Period	Two Weeks After One Year or Less	Three Weeks After Ten Years or Less	Three Weeks After 15 Years or Less
	%	%	%	%
Manufacturing.....	69.4	90.1	10.3	61.6
Public Utilities.....	78.6	93.2	19.3	75.4
Wholesale Trade.....	61.1	90.2	18.7	60.0
Banking (chartered banks).....	—	100.0	—	43.3
Life Insurance (head office employees).....	—	100.0	9.1	84.8

SOURCE:

*Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Tables 22, 34, 35, and
unpublished information concerning banks and life insurance companies.*

Paid Statutory Holidays

Employees in chartered banks are most favoured of all office workers surveyed in the matter of paid statutory holidays. Ninety-seven per

Table 71
**Paid Statutory Holidays of Office Workers in Specified
Industries, Canada, April 1956**

Percentage of Employees in Establishments Reporting:

Industry	Eight Days or More	Nine Days or More
	%	%
Manufacturing.....	85.1	24.3
Public Utilities.....	94.9	75.6
Wholesale Trade.....	88.3	39.3
Banking (chartered banks).....	97.0	97.0
Life Insurance (head office employees).....	83.7	62.6

SOURCE:

*Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Tables 23, 34, 35, and
unpublished information concerning banks and life insurance companies.*

cent of them enjoy nine days or more per year. A high proportion of those working in public utilities firms or life insurance offices also have nine or more paid holidays annually. This is much less common for office workers in the wholesale trade or in manufacturing industries.

In all the industries surveyed however, more than 85 per cent of the employees are given eight or more paid holidays in the year. Here again those in banks and public utilities offices are most likely to have at least this number of holidays. (See Table 71.)

Pension and Insurance Plans

Pension plans were available to all office workers in banks and insurance companies included in the working conditions survey. Such schemes were also in effect in offices of nearly all public utilities. A somewhat smaller proportion of office workers in wholesale houses and manufacturing plants enjoyed the benefits of such a plan. (See Table 72.)

Group life insurance was available to 90 per cent or more of the office workers in all these industries.

Cash compensation for wage loss due to illness was much less common. Provisions of this kind were most likely to be found for workers in the public utilities industry. They were unheard of in the case of bank employees.

Table 72

Pension and Insurance Schemes for Office Workers in Specified Industries, Canada, April 1956

Percentage of Employees in Establishments Reporting:

<i>Industry</i>	<i>Pension Plans</i>	<i>Group Life Insurance Plans</i>	<i>Insurance for Wage Loss due to Illness</i>
	<i>%</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>%</i>
Manufacturing.....	78.3	90.2	58.3
Public Utilities.....	96.3	98.5	73.5
Wholesale Trade.....	85.4	89.8	45.7
Banking (chartered banks).....	100.0	99.8	—
Life Insurance (head office employees).....	100.0	96.3	40.3

SOURCE:

Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Tables 24, 25, 26, and unpublished information concerning banks and life insurance companies.

Special Benefits

Equal pay provisions in collective agreements in the manufacturing industry generally apply only to plant workers, although office workers are sometimes included.

Since office workers are not highly organized, contracts dealing only with office workers are few. However, in one such agreement it is provided that, "where an employee has the necessary qualifications to handle the work, there shall be no discrimination between men and women in the matter of appointments or in salaries for such positions". In another agreement signed by office workers in an establishment employing a high proportion of women, there is provision, under certain conditions for maternity leave without pay for women with at least nine months' seniority.

Retail Trade (sales employees)

Hours of Work

Nearly two-thirds of the retail sales clerks covered by the survey of working conditions in 1956 were women. This is a higher proportion than the 1951 Census shows for all sales clerks (55.1%). Fewer than half of the retail sales clerks were reported to have a work-week of 40 hours or less, which has now become common for office workers. About one-quarter of them worked at least 45 hours a week. The proportion on a five-day week was also much smaller than for office workers. (See Table 73.)

Table 73

Weekly Hours of Retail Sales Employees, Canada, April 1956

Percentage of Employees in Establishments Reporting:

<i>Standard Work Week of</i>	<i>Per cent</i>
40 Hours or Less.....	46.8
Over 40 Hours.....	53.2
45 Hours or More.....	26.2
Five days*.....	55.9

* Includes a few in establishments reporting alternate schedules of 5 and $5\frac{1}{2}$ days.

SOURCE:

Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Table 19.

Vacations With Pay

Two weeks' vacation with pay is now almost as common for sales clerks as for office workers. Nearly 80 per cent were said to be entitled to two weeks off after not more than one year's work. (See

Table 74.) Ninety-six per cent qualified after working two years. It takes longer to earn a three-weeks' holiday, but well over half of the retail sales employees covered by the survey were eligible for three weeks with pay after working not more than 15 years.

Table 74

Vacations with Pay of Retail Sales Employees, Canada, April 1956

Percentage of Employees in Establishments Reporting:

	<i>Per cent</i>
Two Weeks after One Year or Less.....	78.6
Two Weeks after Two Years or Less.....	91.7
Three Weeks after 15 Years or Less.....	58.3

SOURCE:

Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Table 19.

Paid Statutory Holidays

Retail sales employees appeared to be relatively well off too, in the number of paid statutory holidays permitted to them. Nearly two-thirds were allowed nine or more paid holidays in a year, and 65 per cent were eligible for at least eight.

Rest Periods

Practically all retail sales employees are permitted some rest periods. More than half of those covered by the survey of working conditions were given two 15-minute periods daily. Another 20 per cent were allowed two 10-minute periods off, and for 20 per cent the specific rest periods were not stated.

Pension and Insurance Plans

Over 80 per cent of the retail sales employees covered in the survey of working conditions were in establishments reporting a pension plan, and a slightly smaller proportion were eligible for group life insurance. Although hospitalization and surgical benefits were available to more than 75 per cent of these workers, only a small proportion were eligible for a scheme that would compensate for wage loss due to illness.

Special Benefits

Retail sales workers are not highly organized, and for reasons given in the Chapter IV saleswomen are generally paid less than salesmen.

However, in one collective agreement covering workers in this field as well as some others, it was provided that, "Where a male employee is replaced by a female employee, the principle of equal pay for equal work shall apply, regardless of age."

Perhaps one reason why maternity benefits are not as widely available to retail sales clerks as to some other workers is that a fairly high proportion of them, particularly those who are married, work only part time. Part-time workers are not always included in schemes that cover those who work full time.

Service Workers

The survey of working conditions covered employees in hotels, restaurants and laundries, all in the service industry. About 54 per cent of the workers in these establishments were women. This corresponds roughly to the proportion of women in all service occupations according to the Labour Force Survey estimates for April 1956. The proportions of women varies from around 67 per cent in the laundries to 60 per cent in restaurants and 42 per cent in hotels.

Hours of Work

A minority of workers in the service industries enjoyed a standard work week of 40 hours or less. (See Table 75.) In this respect hotel employees were best off, with about one-third working 40 hours or less. The longest hours were most common in restaurants, where four out of five worked longer than 40 hours and 57 per cent were on the job 45 hours or more. The proportion of laundry employees working 45 hours or more was somewhere between the proportions in the other two industries.

Table 75

Weekly Hours of Service Workers in Hotels, Restaurants and Laundries, Canada, April 1956

Percentage of Employees in Establishments Reporting Standard Work Week of:

Industry	40 Hours or Less	45 Hours or More	Five Days*
	%	%	%
Hotels.....	33.9	29.0	35.7
Restaurants.....	21.5	56.9	17.2
Laundries, Dyers, Cleaners and Pressers.....	24.9	40.8	59.0

* Includes a few in establishments reporting alternate schedules of 5 and $5\frac{1}{2}$ days.

SOURCE:

Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Table 20.

The five-day week was much less common for service employees than for factory workers except that laundry workers, with nearly 60 per cent on the five-day week, were not far behind factory workers in the Food and Beverages Industry. Only 36 per cent of hotel workers and 17 per cent of restaurant workers were limited to five days' work in a week. (See Table 75.)

Vacations With Pay

One week's vacation with pay appears to be common in the service industry (Table 76), but information is lacking as to how long an employee is required to work to earn it.

Two weeks off after two years or less was reported by hotels employing more than half the workers. Almost as high a proportion of restaurant employees were entitled to two weeks off after not more than two years' work. In laundries it was common to work at least three years to earn a two weeks' vacation. Three weeks with pay was unusual for hotel employees with less than 15 years' service; one in three was entitled to three weeks off with pay after 15 years.

Table 76

Vacations with Pay for Service Workers in Hotels, Restaurants and Laundries, Canada, April 1956

Percentage of Employees in Establishments Reporting:

Industry	One Week After Unspecified Period	Two Weeks After Two Years or Less	Three Weeks After 15 Years or Less
	%	%	%
Hotels.....	92.4	52.5	33.1
Restaurants.....	90.0	48.4	18.1
Laundries, Dyers, Cleaners and Pressers	97.4	15.1	8.8

SOURCE:

Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Table 20.

Paid Statutory Holidays

It is noticeable that in the service industries, particularly hotels and restaurants, it is uncommon to have eight days or more paid holidays in a year. (See Table 77.)

Table 77

Paid Statutory Holidays for Service Workers in Hotels, Restaurants and Laundries, Canada, April 1956

Percentage of Employees in Establishments Where Number of Paid Statutory Holidays is:

Industry	1-5 Days		8 Days or More	
	%	%	%	%
Hotels.....	18.7		9.9	
Restaurants.....	38.8		21.4	
Laundries, Dyers, Cleaners and Pressers.....	17.4		41.0	

SOURCE:

Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Table 20.

Rest Periods

Table 78 shows that some provision for rest periods was customary in laundries and restaurants, but only about a third of the hotel workers were given periods of rest.

About 45 per cent of the restaurant employees were entitled to two 15-minute periods per day. In laundries it was more usual to have two periods of ten minutes each.

Table 78

Rest Periods for Service Workers in Hotels, Restaurants and Laundries, Canada, April 1956

Employees in Establishments Reporting Rest Periods:

Industry	2 Periods of 15 Minutes		2 Periods of ten Minutes		Total Reporting Rest Periods
	%	%	%	%	
Hotels.....	13.3		7.5		35.4
Restaurants.....	44.6		8.9		79.6
Laundries, Dyers, Cleaners and Pressers..	9.6		75.2		95.2

SOURCE:

Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Table 20.

Pension and Insurance Plans

Of service workers included those in hotels were most widely covered by pension plans. Group life insurance was most commonly available to laundry workers. Workers with insurance for wage loss due to illness were in the minority, with the smallest proportion—just 15 per cent—covered in the restaurant industry. (See Table 79.)

Table 79

Pension and Insurance Schemes for Service Workers in Hotels, Restaurants and Laundries, Canada, April 1956

Percentage of Employees in Establishments Reporting:

Industry	Pension Plans	Group Life Insurance Plans	Insurance for Wage Loss due to Illness
	%	%	%
Hotels.....	50.8	41.2	30.3
Restaurants.....	34.3	45.1	15.1
Laundries, Dyers, Cleaners and Pressers..	5.0	53.3	32.7

SOURCE:

Working Conditions in Canadian Industry, op. cit., 1956, Table 20.

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR AFFAIRS

The foregoing general review of the situation of Canada's working women is eloquent testimony to their contribution to the economy and to the advances they have made over the years. By their own performance and through the efforts of workers of both sexes, women have gained recognition as important contributors to the working force.

The interest of governments in improving working conditions for all Canadians is demonstrated by legislation in the provinces as well as Canada-wide enactments on subjects that fall within the jurisdiction of the national government.

Since Canadians are affected also by conditions in other countries, governments are vitally concerned with developments elsewhere in the field of labour. This concern has long been expressed through Canada's participation in the work of the United Nations, and particularly of one of its specialized agencies, the International Labour Organization.

In 1957 Canada was elected to membership on the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women. Participation in this international body will not only keep Canada aware of developments of interest to women taking place in various parts of the world, but it will also enable Canada's voice to be heard on questions that concern all women.

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